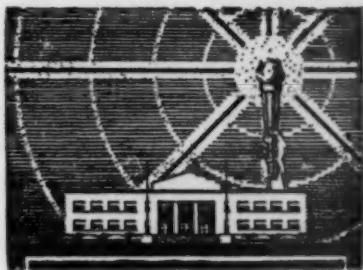


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VOLUME XLVI, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1955

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VOLUME XLVI, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1955

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES does not accept responsibility for the views expressed in articles, reviews, and other contributions which appear in its pages. It provides opportunities for publication of materials which may represent divergent ideas, judgments and opinions.

EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.
Subscription \$3.50 a year, single numbers 50 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Copyright, 1955, McKinley Publishing Co. Entered as second-class matter, October 26, 1909, at Post Office
at Philadelphia, Pa., under Act of March 3, 1879

As the Editor Sees It

A short time ago we received an examination copy of a new social studies text for junior high schools. It was an attractively printed and illustrated book, well bound and of a suitable size. In these physical features it was little different from scores of other good social studies texts. Yet this particular one, we felt, had a purpose, a *raison d'être*, which gave it special merit. It dealt with American history, but it was not a history text. It included selections of prose and poetry, yet it was not primarily a reader. It discussed government and geography, but it was not a manual for either of these fields of study. What it was, in fact, was an attempt (and a good one) to develop old-fashioned patriotism by giving youngsters some of the stuff that the American dream is made of. There was the story of the Declaration and the Constitution. There were chapters on our famous monuments and landmarks, our great cities and rivers, our National Capital. There were some of the patriotic poems that children a generation or more ago had to memorize, and some of the great songs we learned to sing. It was a book of propaganda for America—and we were glad to see it.

America is a wonderful place, and its story is an heroic one. It is a story of triumph over great obstacles, of growth and change, of statesmen and builders, inventors and industrialists, of simple people who left the land better than they found it. It is the kind of history that has no parallel in the Old World, where real progress ended about the time ours began. We believe that the generation of young people today is in some danger of forgetting, or never really knowing, how America grew. We live too much in the present. Beset by tele-

vision, movies, radio and a life of constant motion, we have little time to contemplate our background and to learn to appreciate it.

It is natural to look back at the McGuffey Readers and the Fourth of July orators with sentimental amusement. What an unsophisticated lot our grandfathers must have been! Yet there is some peril in becoming so sophisticated that we come to regard our national traditions principally as material for a good TV program.

We believe that history and its allied fields should be taught truthfully but with a purpose. At the graduate school level that purpose is probably and properly the search for more truth, just as it is in the study of pure mathematics. But at the level of the elementary and secondary schools, the purpose of history and the social studies should be to show the learner why and how he came to be able to sit in that classroom and learn. History should not be made to him merely an exercise in applied psychology, showing how people act in given circumstances. It ought to have the same kind of purpose as does elementary mathematics—to give him a useful asset. In the case of the social studies the asset is a real sense of belonging to a long and glorious tradition.

Men, like plants, need roots. Without them, we tend to become insecure, irresponsible and a prey to every wind that blows. We think there is a place for the sort of book we first referred to, which unabashedly seeks to develop those roots through a knowledge of and pride in our national heritage. "The past, at least, is secure," said Daniel Webster. Perhaps we should do more to give our children some of that kind of security.

The Women of Asia

Examine Their Responsibilities

MARGUERITE J. FISHER

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A vivid indication of the vast social changes occurring throughout Asia was provided when the Pacific and South-East Asia Women's Association met in Manila in the early part of this year. Women of prominence in legislative, civic, educational and business circles in twenty countries came together to consider the pressing problems of their part of the world, and the role which women were playing, or could play, in dealing with these problems. Mrs. Luz Mag-saysay, wife of the president of the Philippines and honorary president of the Association, greeted the delegates with a message of encouragement from the women of her country.

Exotic costumes and hair arrangements added color and variety to the conference sessions. Women in the saris of India, the kimonos of Japan, the ternos of the Philippines, and the batik skirts of Indonesia mingled with the determinedly hatted and gloved Australian ladies. There were many colorful personalities, as well as costumes, among the delegates. From New Zealand came Miss Mira Petricevitch, a statuesque, six-foot Maori beauty, voted "Miss New Zealand" in 1951. One of the most appealing of the delegates was the lady from the Caroline Islands, who had journeyed from her simple home for the first time in her life, to meet and consider common problems with the other women of Asia. When introduced to her fellow delegates she explained in halting English: "For the first time in my life I stand before such a group."

A major subject of discussion was the improvement of the status of women in Asian countries. But the topic was not confined to the achievement of political, legal and economic

rights. In fact, there was far more concern with social responsibilities. The women leaders of Asia seemed to understand very well that they could be free only if society were free and stable, and to attain such a society they would have to deal realistically with such social and economic matters as maternal and child welfare, social security, labor unions, home industries, land reform, community improvement and economic development. All of these and other topics related to social change in Asia were included in the program and discussed with vigor and insight. It was taken for granted that only as women faced their responsibilities as citizens, could they expect to achieve any lasting improvement in their status.

Two factors appear to be most important in transforming the role of women in Asia,—Western influence and economic pressure. Inspired by the example of her Western sisters, Queen Salote returned to the Island of Tonga after attending Queen Elizabeth's Coronation, determined to push women's activities. Under the sponsorship of the Queen, the Association of Tongan Women was formed. The Association has worked for home improvements, better hygiene and sanitation, home gardens and poultry raising. The ladies of the Association, with Queen Salote's approval, make inspections and give an award of merit to the local community which has made the most progress along these lines. They are now planning to build a clubhouse, where, for the first time, there will be books and magazines to read. Thus they hope to widen their horizons and improve their conditions of life by learning from the women of the more advanced countries. In the Philippines, on the other hand, women's role is changing not only through Western influence but because of economic pressure. Faced with inflationary high prices and a determination to

EDITOR'S NOTE: The author was a delegate from the International Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs to this conference, held Jan. 24-Feb. 6, 1955.

raise their standard of living, Filipino women have gone into professions, businesses, factories and shops, even though many of them are married and the mothers of numerous children.

In meeting to evaluate their role as citizens, the women of Asia are confronted by enormous differences in living standards. The farm women on the Australian island of Tasmania have not only political and legal rights comparable to those of their men, but many of them have electricity in their homes and English cars in which they travel to visit their neighbors. The wife on the dairy farm often helps in the milking, but with an electric milking machine and electric separator. Girls, as well as boys, have equal access to public education. At the other extreme are the women in Kailancha, India, where a WHO team from the United Nations is working to improve health conditions. The women of the Golla caste living nearby must go to the fields outside the village when they are about to bear a child. They go through the delivery by themselves and do not return to the village for two months. There is no school, and little food, for their children.

The women's club movement, a source of civic action and an avenue of participation in America for well over a century, is accelerating a social change among the women of Asia. On Western Samoa there are now women's councils in the villages, which raise funds to purchase school books for children and medicines with which to combat tropical diseases. The Samoan women meet, not in club-houses, but seated around a circle as they bake their food on an open oven of heated stones. Among the Maoris of New Zealand the Women's Welfare League cooperates with the government in health and hygiene education, in the perpetuation of ancient Maori handicrafts, and in the establishment of maternity clinics. Its influence has spread to the remotest areas of New Zealand. Women who have never attended a meeting before now go to its conferences. Many of them are illiterate. But they see in this women's league a chance to take up the cudgels for a better life for their children.

On the Caroline Islands the Woman's Club has a market day, when each member brings some home-craft product to sell for the Club's treasury. One of the Club's projects has been the planting of trees and shrubs along the sides

of the roads. They have also helped local girls to go to Hawaii to be educated as nurses. But, said the delegate from the Carolines, this has not always turned out well. Some of the girls return and "marry uneducated men, and are then unhappy, or else they don't marry at all, because the men won't have them when they get so much education."

In some parts of Asia the women's groups assist in major plans for the economic development of their country. In Pakistan, for example, the All-Pakistan Women's Association has done much to encourage cottage or home industries. These home industries are supplying the domestic markets with textiles and other necessities, thus enabling the nation to reserve its dollars for the import of heavy machinery needed in the development of the country. To guard against the exploitation of the women in home industries, the All-Pakistan Women's Association has pressed for maternity benefits and fair pay for these workers. In addition, certain so-called industrial homes have been set up as pilot projects, where the women come to do their work during the day. Here they are taught hygiene and nutrition. A crèche is provided to take care of their children, and this offers an opportunity for training in improved methods of child care.

The subject of handicrafts and home industries is a vital one throughout the Far East today. It is being promoted by all sorts of organizations, public and private. Most of the home-craft workers are women, and thus the women are making a contribution to the economic development of their countries. Where modern factories do not exist the women through home industries can earn extra income and improve the family standard of living. According to a survey made by the Ministry of Agriculture in Japan, the cottage industries add 25% to farm-family income. Ancestral handicraft skills are revived and perpetuated, and in some cases the articles can be exported to foreign markets. Home industries, moreover, develop labor skills and processes which may be used eventually in full-scale factories.

Technical experts from the United Nations and the Foreign Operations Administration of the U. S. Government have been sent to the Philippines and other Asian countries to provide training and assistance in the develop-

ment of home industries. In the Philippines home workers were brought from the provinces to Manila for training periods of thirty to sixty days. The trainees were given free transportation expenses and a living allowance while in Manila. They were taught improved methods of handloom weaving of textiles, ceramics and pottery making, hat weaving, embroidery and rug weaving. Upon returning to their provinces they taught their neighbors what they had learned in Manila. The plan worked so well that the training program has now been transferred to the provinces, where the craft workers are reached in their homes and trained on the spot.

Whether they work in home industries, on farms or in factories, most of the women of Asia face a much harder struggle for existence than their Western sisters. A recent survey in central Japan showed that the average rural housewife worked eight hours a day on the farm, plus six hours in household duties. But, unaware of any easier life, 45% of the women stated that their life was "not particularly hard," while an additional 20% replied that "they could not do otherwise."

In Australia women have a high status and political, legal and economic rights equal to those found in the most advanced Western countries. But, even here, in most positions in the government the women are paid 75% of the salary or wage a man receives in the same job. This "unequal pay for equal work" prevails for professional women as well as for ordinary wage earners. Private business and industry tend, unfortunately, to follow the example set by the government.

The women leaders of the Asian nations realize that the basis of progress for their sex lies in education. When women are illiterate, or given only the inadequate rudiments of an education, the right to vote or to hold office will remain a remote abstraction rather than a reality. Furthermore, the education of women is fundamental to the progress of the whole society. As the Maori delegate to the Pacific and South-East Asia Women's Association conference pointed out: "Educate a man, and you educate an individual. Educate a woman, and you educate a whole family."

The percentage of illiteracy is still considerably higher for women than for men in many

parts of Asia. According to statistics provided by the United Nations, in Burma, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Thailand, the Federation of Malaya and Fiji, the average percentage of male illiteracy ranges from 29 to 85%, with an average of 44%; but the average of female illiteracy is 71%. In the first five of these countries women have been given the vote in all elections on an equal footing with men, yet—with such a low rate of literacy it is futile to hope that the women will discharge their new political rights with the same competence as men. It is inevitable, also, that such a high percentage of illiteracy should seriously handicap women in their participation in social and economic life.

Whereas the number of boys and girls enrolled in primary education is approximately equal in Australia and New Zealand, on the other hand in Afghanistan, Burma, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Laos, Pakistan and Vietnam the percentage of girls in primary education ranges from three to 37%, with an average of 23%. Further, the education offered to girls in primary schools is often far from satisfactory. In countries where there is a low percentage of girls enrolled in primary education, the proportion of women teachers is also low (Pakistan 6%, India 15%, Afghanistan 3%, Vietnam 28%). But in the Philippines, Australia and New Zealand, the percentage of women primary school teachers is equal to or above that of men. A girl's chances for a secondary education, also, are much greater in those Asian countries where there is equality of enrollment at the primary level. In Australia and New Zealand, for example, the percentage of girls enrolled in secondary schools is equal to that of boys.

The education of girls in Asia is hindered by two major factors. First, when families have little money to keep their children in school, sons are given preference rather than daughters. In the second place there are still many restrictions of tradition and custom which frown on the idea that women should engage in activities outside the home. But these traditions are fast breaking down. The Western concept of free, compulsory education for both sexes is now agitating all of Asia, and is gaining ground over former customs. In Saigon, South Vietnam, there were only 52 ap-

plicants for admission to the girls' high school in 1920, but there were 2,000 girls who applied for admission to this same school in 1950. As the delegate from Vietnam expressed it, "marriage is no longer considered a safe investment, even for good-looking girls."

Women have made impressive progress in the Philippines in recent decades. The number of girls enrolled in primary schools is equal to that of boys. Most of the colleges of the University of the Philippines were opened to women when the University was founded in 1908. There are said to be more universities in the Philippines than in England, but all these universities, both public and private, accept both men and women, with one exception—The Philippine Women's University. Women almost equal the number of men now enrolled in Filipino universities. Some of the law schools, medical schools and dentistry schools have a higher percentage of women students than are found in such institutions in the United States. Many Filipino women have been sent to the United States for higher training under the

Fulbright Act, the Smith-Mundt Act, and the FOA (Foreign Operations Administration) program.

All of these opportunities for education have shown results in increased interest in citizenship and public affairs among Filipino women. During the 1953 elections, of the 5,603,231 Filipinos who went to the polls, 2,277,793 were women. Future candidates for public office in the Philippines will have to pay attention to this formidable force of female voters. There have been five Congress-women and one woman Senator in the Filipino Congress, and two women have served in the Cabinet.

The international conference of the Pacific and South-East Asia Women's Association was a heartening sign of the emergence of women as free citizens of the nations of Asia. As one of the delegates expressed it, the special contribution of women in Asian countries might well be summed up by the adage: "the sympathy of yesterday becomes the justice of tomorrow."

An Approach to Teaching of World Affairs

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So tense is the world situation, so important in their future implications are the intriguing present social economic, and political controversies, that teachers—and certainly social studies teachers—to justify their place in an alert society, must know their world. It is imperative to our safety that all Americans become more aware of world affairs. People who are escapists in their thinking, who do not care to sense the significance of the dangers about them, who refuse to see life in its raw reality, are not intelligent people. True, as some say, if we listen to all that goes on, propaganda of all types may deafen our ears to Truth and blind our vision; nevertheless, someone of

responsibility must make sense out of it all, and who else in the general mass of people should be better qualified to give an educated guidance than the teacher?

Asia, for instance, daily grows larger in its significance in world affairs; and apparently little academic effort, certainly in the public schools, is made to understand its weighty influence on this present, deepening international struggle between totalitarianism and the democratic principle. Though we enthusiastically seek new knowledge, much of it extraneous, we know far too little about global matters that have vital bearing on our future existence as members of this war-torn planet, that have

meaning relative to realities. To better understand the perplexities of foreign problems that demand decision from us as a nation, regardless of the disturbing controversies they may engender, it becomes imperative for the electorate to know where we stand and why. To better work for peace among our fellows, we must—as must all peoples—try more seriously to understand each other. Our “world” has been expanded now far afield from the mere projection of Europeans and their descendants; now it encompasses places we knew little or nothing about a few years ago. For instance, we cannot allow ourselves any more that sentimental luxury of thinking of distant India as just a strange, inscrutable land of pampered cows, charmable snakes, chattering monkeys, and ignorant beggars. The quaintness of far-off peoples, their childlike primitiveness are figments of imagination. It will be disastrous to our program of peace propagation to disregard or remain ignorant of the great cultural upheavals that are rocking the old foundations throughout Asia.

There are many things about Asia we need to know if our citizens are to be adequately prepared to help create the policies which will in turn contribute to the growth of Asian freedom from tyranny and establish and give vital strength to the cause of democracy throughout the world. To better offset the inroads of Communism, we should be aware why Asians want land and health reforms, why there is this impelling desire for economic revision, this hunger for schooling, this hatred of colonialism, and this suspicion of Western motives.

This understanding comes slowly, painfully, and demands careful study. It can only be acquired by our populace through a lengthy, careful, sympathetic educational build-up in our schools; and, to be most effective, on a long range plan, it must be started with the younger generation. But before youngsters can be expertly taught, first, teachers themselves must, with urgency, get a “brushing up” on the fundamentals.

The broad basic information—simplified, generalized data—that most teachers have of the world, is appropriate enough for the elementary schools, but at secondary level, one cannot treat this complex subject of World Affairs lackadaisically or without special prepa-

ration. To offset a vexing student criticism and questioning, teachers must bolster their defenses with factual answers. One effective way to provide such preparation is to teach the teachers in In-Service World Affairs workshops on the Far East, Europe, Latin America, or Africa.

At these discussion workshops, after a thorough study of propaganda techniques and the principles of group dynamics, an intensive reading program would be pursued. Public libraries are acquiring a growing list of writing on world affairs. A well-chosen selection of books and magazine articles will provide enough perspective to discriminate between the serious and the superficial treatment, the more authentic version and the biased approach.

The embassies of the countries to be studied will supply much detailed information—slanted naturally, from their viewpoint. Various other materials can be had from numerous sources if one keeps alerted to them. The Foreign Policy Association publishes a series of “Headline” booklets and “Foreign Policy Bulletins.” The Council on Foreign Affairs’ quarterly, *Foreign Affairs*, is authoritative, and the more popular news magazines: *United States News and World Report*, *Newsweek*, and *Time*, especially, provide much food for thought. *The Christian Science Monitor*, and the Sunday news supplement of the *New York Times* prove reliable for balanced coverage. The British weekly, *The Manchester Guardian*, circulated in this country, may be profitably read for its foreign slant to our interpretations. The weekly *National Geographic School Bulletins* publish interesting background data concerning world areas that would be difficult to find in any other source outside encyclopedias.

Regardless of their bias, the editorials and columnists’ reports of most widely accepted American newspapers can provide opinions that stimulate thought and strengthen one’s conclusions. Even strictly propagandistic literature, if viewed realistically for what it is, can clarify one’s understanding of the opposition’s viewpoints. Clippings, pictures, films, even fiction—all can help build a perspective that will influence for the better our knowledge of the world, and a more healthful degree of understanding will surely result.

Visiting foreign students who represent the

"flower" of their lands could well add zest to discussion groups in adding native interpretations to questions arising from one's reading.

Correspondence, letter-writing to pen pals, can bring many interesting comments. Summer courses in International Relations and lecture sessions at universities are being offered in larger numbers for those teachers who cannot find access to In-Service workshops.

Whatever is done, we cannot escape the fact that the history of the next quarter century, or more, will certainly be largely written in Asia, and our responsibilities in that direction cannot be neglected.

Now, to get down to cases, to see how all this motivation can be applied to action. Here are three concrete procedures that could be followed as best fits one's teaching situation.

A World Affairs student workshop unit could be established in conjunction with a United States Government course. The week's work, throughout the semester, could be specifically scheduled in this manner: one day, Monday preferably, should be set aside for library or class study purposes in preparation for the usual Friday World Affairs panel meeting. The other days would be devoted strictly to the study of our governmental procedures which, whenever possible, could be integrated with the week's discussion topic. A short film or other audio-visual material related to the panel topic of that week could be shown for added interest. If the course assignment dealt with the Executive branch of government, there could be a definite tie-in with similar governmental functions of the nation to be considered that week in the panel discussion.

To create a sensible background for learning, discussion, on Mondays and Fridays, however, the first few weeks should center chiefly on the mechanics of those preparatory functions required for the proper conduct of a study-discussion workshop: the use of the library, the techniques of research, the study of propaganda methods, the proper procedures of effective discussion, the art of critical thinking—whatever appears pertinent before a pupil-controlled discussion activity can successfully take place.

The class is to decide what area of the world best interests them for a semester's intensive study, whether it would be the Far East, Europe, South America, or whether they would

like to spend ten weeks on one, and ten on another area. If the Far East, for example, were chosen, a student committee would arrange a schedule of library study-discussion groups and panel topics and speakers. Every pupil would be scheduled to take his turn as chairman of one of three library groups on Monday and to follow through on the following Friday as one of three World Affairs panel members when the summations of the study groups would be presented before the class. In this way everyone is forced to take active part and, through experience, learn group leadership and participation in discussion. The teacher, as consultant and moderator of the panels, will assist the groups in every way to reach their goals; he should insist upon a clarification of goal seeking and value orientation by the processes of critical thought and by reference to the imperatives of a democratic society.

To provide more time to get started on research on Asia, the first "official" library group session could be a summary of the preliminaries already generally discussed. Group A would investigate "Ways of modern communication"; group B: "Analyzing the news"; group C: "Study of propaganda techniques." On Friday, in the panel discussion, the assigned chairmen of these Monday groups would summarize their conclusions in the topic: "How can we know the Truth?"

The next Monday, as a warm-up on the Far East, the library groups, under new chairmen and discussing separately general information relative to either Japan, China, or India—the Big Three—would consider the general topic: "What are the activities of the United States in the Far East and what are the resulting problems?" Other questions to be kept in mind would be: "How has the last war affected the country under discussion?" "What do the Big Powers want in the Far East in relation to the country under discussion?" Still other considerations could be the geographical factors, cultural differences, political and economic phases and the key personalities of the assigned country. The student chairman of each group will have the responsibility of organizing his group and will depend on them to supply him with added, special information for the "show-down" on Friday. This "one for all, all for one" unity of purpose will tend to solidify group

activity and add enthusiasm to each group's desire to contribute to the World Affairs panel. Films could help clarify the panel's topic: "What is behind the unrest in Asia?" The teacher should have prepared easy access to a variety of information: newspaper clippings, pictures, magazine articles, and books, in order to help shorten pupil wastage of time in too lengthy searching for materials.

The next week the whole class would concentrate on one of the three countries previously mentioned. Then, one by one all member-nations of the various areas would be studied, such as those in Southeast Asia, the East Indies, and the perimeter areas of China and India.

If "Japan—what are its problems if it is to accept the democratic way of life?" should be the general topic, group A would study historical Japan; group B, religion, and how Japanese religious thought conflicts with our philosophy; group C, the present Japanese social and economic structure. Then, again, during the week, there would be welcomed acceptance of whatever information pertaining to Japan that could be integrated with the government lesson. And these chairmen, that Friday, would then be well prepared to discuss: "What is Japan's future as our ally?" Sub-topics could be: "Can Japan become democratic?" "Has our occupation of Japan benefited the Japanese?"

Thus, with each week bringing new group leadership, China, India, Indochina, Burma, Thailand, Korea, Formosa, Indonesia, Pakistan would be given intensive study. By the time ten weeks were up, or a semester—if the program is made more detailed—the Far East would no longer be a "Land of Mystery" to these youngsters. The problems and procedures of our government relative to foreign affairs would be much more understandable, and the present news of world happenings would take on added meaning. Then, after investigating another world region, there would be good reason to presume that these participants would be better prepared to cope with mid-Twentieth Century problems than their parents have been.

Another procedure, not as open, however, to active participation by all the pupils as the previous one, is to have the whole class "hired" as "foreign correspondents" assigned to listening posts scattered over the "world." On Fri-

days, especially, as a weekly roundup—even though it could be done whenever the occasion would demand—the class chairman, or "head reporter," would "call in" his "correspondents" for their reports. It would generally be the head reporter's responsibility to analyze and weigh what areas were then of most importance and to engage in a question-answer type of discussion between the pertinent key posts on whatever current incidents demand attention—whether they be Berlin, London, Tokyo, or Bombay.

This activity should alert everyone to greater awareness of daily happenings because each reporter would be held responsible for the news that week from his particular "beat." If he failed to indicate adequate understanding of his current situation and was spelled down by his co-workers or chairman, who knew more about his area than he did, he would suffer in his grade evaluation, or "pay-check"—given by the teacher who acted as "managing-editor."

Care should be taken to choose the most active pupils for the key reporter positions in order to insure thorough and lively contributions. These key reporters would receive their appointments by vote of the class—at least the first five or six who were to be scattered at strategic "listening posts" over the world. As "area-chiefs" they would then exercise some supervision over less active ones assigned to nearby sub-stations; their enthusiasm and help would bolster those members less able to liven the Friday "showdown"; in turn, by keeping alert to the daily news, these assistants could aid their chief in making sure they had all the answers for the roundup. While a reporter made his requested contribution, all other reporters could "break-in" on the "hook-up" to interrogate or add comments.

Usually, or if necessary, the teacher could serve as recorder. At the end of the period, he could sum up the meaning of the week's news and add comments for improvement or interpretation.

And, as a third suggestion, if one finds it best to adhere to the old way—the incidental method, for instance—thought should be given to the avoidance of the strictly question-answer type of procedure. Emphasis, instead, should be given to the creation of an atmosphere of discussion similar to that of a home situation

where friends discuss current issues, where pupils assume the major responsibility with the minimum of teacher-talk, where extroverts will not be permitted to monopolize the time and the shy ones not allowed to remain completely out of the stream of discussion.

One or more periods each week could be set aside for a general discussion of current world issues and how they pertain to the work studied that week. The weekly high school news-magazine could be used as a foundation for study. If the room could be arranged with the chairs in one big circle so that no one would have his back to anyone while talking, an informal, comfortable atmosphere for adult-type discussion could be created. All copies of the news-magazine, which had been studied previously, would be set aside; notes would be permitted only for those making special reports. The teacher, sitting in the circle with the pupils, would merely serve as the "expert" and "moral authority of the larger society," the leader, to keep the talk going, one speaker at a time, the idea being that everyone, some time during the period, would contribute some item. Sportsmanship and courtesy and good fellowship would be constant prerequisites to membership in the group.

The teacher would start the "ball rolling" by making a brief statement, perhaps presenting background material or some introduction, concerning the first topic to be discussed, ending with a question inviting answers. Those presenting opinions should have reasons; if the reasons are inadequate, the speaker should be challenged by his classmates. Gradually, as more are encouraged to speak, all aspects of the issue would be investigated. Bringing in ideas from other sources would be indicative of better preparation.

When enough has been said on the first topic, the teacher, after a brief summary, moves on to another question. This process would then be repeated as time permits. Once conversation begins to flow, the teacher must be willing to become passive to insure greater pupil participation. Occasional interference would be necessary to keep the group on the topic or to add needed information, or to relate enrichment material and to clarify thoughts. Even if some two or three pupils indulge in spirited debate, briefly, as long as they stay on the issue, or if

some knowing pupil wishes to explain in detail, beyond his usual time limit, some point the others welcome hearing—and as long as good manners prevail and there is no conspicuous "hogging the show"—permission should be granted. To bring out the shy ones, certain questions should be purposely directed at them to force them out of silence, or they should be urged to accept short report assignments so as to give them reason to inject their contributions into the discussion.

When pupils become accustomed to the routine and can go on their own steam, it would be wise to have the class elect a student-leader for the period. The teacher, now as consultant, and the chosen leader could check over, in advance, the list of questions, revising, eliminating, or adding, whatever both feel necessary. It should be realized that not all pupils are good leaders. Those selected should be those best able to carry out their responsibilities, and, if the class so desires, should be allowed to repeat their chairmanships.

As a summation, then, there are certain reminders to teachers that need remembering. Devices, whatever they may be, are not ends in themselves; they are merely aids in furthering understanding. Current affairs materials must be presented at the pupil's reading level and chosen chiefly to provide interest and background for understanding. Teacher enthusiasm will force experimentation with various devices and should arouse student participation and discussion. Topics should be sensibly arranged in consideration of the time allotment. Controversial issues cannot be avoided in healthy discussion, and therefore, it is imperative that unsupported statements or prejudiced, biased viewpoints should be challenged. Vague ideas and generalities bring little meat to the feast of minds; thus preparation is vital. Events of the present should be integrated with the history and geography involved. There should be suitable maps, globes, graphs, dictionaries, and study materials about the classroom. Current affairs study introduces new words, new words create new ideas, and thus it is important to evaluate and test the learning that has been arrived at by whatever exercise best fits the situation.

And, finally, the controversial should not be considered the bugaboo so many teachers have

in their timidity made it to be. This quote from the 1954 Yearbook, AASA, *Education for American Citizenship*, should provoke challenge: "Controversy is what makes news, for the most part. To consider current events without seeing that issues of disagreement underlie the happenings being reported is impossible. Thus, when young people in school discuss cur-

rent events in any meaningful fashion, they will deal with controversial issues which call for a master's skill in teaching." This nation was built on the basis of settling controversial issues through democratic processes, so what are we teachers hesitant about? We are the fire-bearers of Democracy! We, above all else, have the duty of carrying the torch!

Myriads of Maps

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While Anaximander (611-546 B.C.) is usually credited as the first map maker of the world, the earliest known map antedates this cartographer greatly. A Sumerian map on clay tablets, illustrating the military operations of Sargon of Akkad is estimated to have been made *circa* 2700 B.C.¹ Since that date literally millions of maps have been produced.

Maps have been made with many different instruments and are made to this day in a great variety of ways. The first tool used was probably a man's finger, tracing a map in sand or snow. Later, a stick was used and finally, a great stride was taken when sticks were dipped in grease and soot or charcoal before being applied to a skin, or some surface, thus insuring for the map some degree of permanence.²

Knives were employed to cut maps in wood by the Greeks, Romans and Chinese. The last had earlier engraved their maps on bronze. Other early maps were drawn on leather, fabric, parchment and vellum, and paper. The Babylonians, even when parchment was in use, continued to make maps on clay tablets. Bark was used in early map making and is still used by primitive peoples, and the Chinese, Mexicans, and Peruvians replaced their early bark or metal maps with, respectively, silk and cotton maps.³

Modern primitives draw quite useful maps and one exceptional specimen, a Tchuktchi map drawn on a board in reindeer blood, uses deeper tints to indicate mountains, edges of forests, and river fords. However, in most cases no

variation in coloring appears on maps drawn by people of primitive tribes.⁴

Eskimos drew useful maps for Franz Boas, usually showing routes to hunting grounds, fisheries, or villages. The Kootenay Indians of British Columbia are also capable map makers and the chief of the African Bakubas made a map for an explorer showing the Sankuru River system of the Belgian Congo.⁵ Native Papuans drew a map in the sand to show W. N. Beaver the relative positions and names of various tributaries of a river he was exploring in New Guinea.⁶

In eastern Greenland, natives still carve their maps in wood, as do certain Amerindians and Polynesians.⁷ The Marshall Islanders have quite unique maps (or charts, actually.) These Micronesian seafarers make them of narrow strips of palm leaf, tied together in a definite order, and probably representing the currents of the sea. Small shells tied to the ribbed framework represent islands.⁸

Not all maps are as portable as these palm leaf examples, of course. A map of *circa* 600 A.D., showing a plan of Jerusalem, is a mosaic in the floor of a church in Transjordan.⁹ Some maps are of great value because of the material from which they are made, such as the maps of Rome on silver tablets at Charlemagne's court, as described by Einhard,¹⁰ or the map of France presented by the Tsar to that republic before the outbreak of World War I. This map, to help cement Franco-Russian ties of friendship, was made entirely of gold and jewels.¹¹

Many maps are also great works of art; one such example is the group painted in color on screens for the Daimyo of Echizen province in feudal Japan of the 16th century.¹²

Most of the maps with which we are acquainted, however, have been made upon parchment or paper, either by manuscript or some printing process. Charts and maps were first engraved upon copper in the 16th century and the method is still in use at the present day. The disadvantages of this process are that engraving, done by hand, is slow and the copper plate becomes worn and distorted with use. Copper plate engraving offers a compensating advantage, however, in that the plates can be burnished to obliterate the engraving, or a piece of the plate can be cut out and replaced, when a correction is necessary. This is especially advantageous in the case of maritime charts where changes are frequent as buoys are increased, shipwrecks occur, and sandbanks shift. All these hazards and aids to navigation must be entered on the current charts.¹³

By the 17th century, cartographers were important personages in the western kingdoms. In 1636 Jean Boisseau carried the title "*lumineur du roi pour les cartes géographiques*,"¹⁴ and in 1670 Samuel Pepys remarked that John Seller, who had just obtained the title Hydrographer to the King, was beginning the publication of volumes of charts called *The English Pilot* and *The Coasting Pilot*. Pepys added that Seller "had bought the old worn Dutch copper plates for old copper and had refreshed them in many places."¹⁵

A typical map maker of this century was Willem Janzoon Blaeu. This Dutch cartographer in 1636 had a plant consisting of a type foundry, six copperplate map presses, and nine type presses named after the nine Muses.¹⁶

Early globes, like that of Martin Behaim (1492), were simple balls covered with strips of parchment upon which was drawn, by hand, a map. Later, globes were made of copper and then engraved or were of wood with hand-drawn or engraved maps pasted upon them. By the end of the 16th century, globe makers had learned to draw their maps on gores—pieces of paper like two triangles set base to base, with their points at the North and South Poles of the globe, and their bases at the Equator. The paper was then stretched and a set of gores

would cover exactly the surface of the globe. The engraving, as it came off the copper plate, was black on white but many globes (and maps) were later colored by hand.¹⁷

It was the usual thing in the 17th and 18th centuries to put lettering on the map only where there was no detail, to avoid obscuring the line work by the lettering, or vice versa. As a result, names of towns or areas were often spread unevenly across the map, with individual letters appearing only where there were blank spaces. From the 16th century onward, three alphabets were used on maps—Roman capitals, lower case, and italics.¹⁸

When maps began to be engraved on copper, the engravers found it convenient to copy, stroke by stroke, the lettering of the manuscript maps. This imitation of the reed pen writing led to the adoption of italic printing on maps.¹⁹ After two hundred years of italics, *circa* 1750 a change was made to commercial roundhand on manuscript maps. This led to the use of "stump" lettering of maps, rather than italics. Ugly, ill-proportioned letters, exaggerated serifs, and a decrease in legibility were the net result. This style lasted until the mid-19th century, when a revival in the art of map lettering began, coincident with the growth of helio-zincography in British Ordnance Survey map-making.²⁰

While the most beautiful map results are obtained via the copper plate process,²¹ maps are often printed by lithography or zincography, using the copper plate as a negative. This is a cheaper process and, in addition, the plate enjoys a longer life before distortion occurs.²² Map makers of the British Ordnance Survey turned to photo-zincography in order to hurry their production of maps when engravers began to get behind in their work. The process transfers the original drawing to a prepared zinc plate from which the printing is done. This was used by the Ordnance Survey as only a stop-gap and the copper plate editions were used as soon as they were ready.²³

Attempts have been made, from time to time, to print whole maps from type, thereby cutting the time and expense of engraving the detail. August Gottlieb Preuschen, of Karlsruhe, invented a method of printing maps from movable types in the late 18th century. (Before Preuschen an unknown printer had printed

crude maps using conventional type—asterisks, circles, etc.) Preuschen and Wilhelm Haas created types to show forests, river courses, mountains, roads, and small and large cities. In October 1776 the first map, a plan of Basel, was issued and sent to the various courts of Europe and to the Academy of Sciences at Petrograd where it received much recognition.²⁴

Johann Breitkopf, of Leipzig, issued similar maps of Leipzig with improvements over Preuschen and Haas—his river lines varied in width according to the importance of the streams, and he distinguished between roads and boundaries by using parallel dotted lines for the first and a succession of dashes for the latter.²⁵

There were two methods of printing these maps—either by "set up" or "fudged" composition. The former demanded that all types be of the same body size, so that they could be fitted in combination and could be used over again. The latter process involved the use of types of varying sizes, those too small having the interstices filled with slivers of wood or pieces of paper and those too large being trimmed with a knife. Thus, a fit was insured but it was seldom that the types could be used over for a new piece of map copy.²⁶

While Haas planned to color his maps by printing with wood tint blocks on the wet map paper, Breitkopf preferred to print the type from copy and then add color by hand, with a brush.²⁷ Jacques-Francois Sainton also printed maps from movable type in the period 1785-1800,²⁸ and some rudimentary, experimental types were produced in the United States by the Boston Type Foundry in 1880. The finest specimens of this type of map reproduction, never to be successful to any extent, were those of A. Hahlau, especially his map of the British Isles of 1851.²⁹

Attempts to establish the age of the John Carter Brown Library woodcut world map with the legend "America" led to the discovery that one type of watermarked Nurnberg paper was used for maps during a period lasting from 1477 to 1511. The paper was extensively distributed, also, and this fact makes more difficult the identification of undated, unsigned maps even on watermarked paper.³⁰

Some maps are still printed from lithograph stones but more are run off from aluminum or zinc sheets, clamped to a rotary press. Both

stone and metal have the property of retaining oily ink and absorbing water where there is no ink. Thus, lines applied from the inked copper plate are transferred to the dry machine-plate. Then water is applied so that the rest of the plate won't take ink, insuring a clear outline.³¹

For short runs of modern machine-printed maps, a flat bed press is used, printing some 800 per hour. For a long run, up to 2,000 an hour, a rotary offset press is often used. For varicolored maps a battery of several offset rotaries is used.³² Some presses, such as those of the United States Army Map Service, print two colors at a time, however.³³

Paper for maps and globes is often hung in the plant for a month in order to become acclimated to the heat and humidity. Canvas is also hung and stretched, and the map is pasted on while the canvas is still hanging.³⁴

Maps are linen-backed in a machine but the trimming of edges is done by a "guillotine man," before the maps are sent to the folding and covering department. Here again, much of the work is still done by hand as it was done early in the history of map reproduction. Machines can be used to fold maps *partly*—perhaps three North-South folds, or six East-West folds—but not completely. When maps are folded in both direction by machine, the air imprisoned in the folds bursts the maps. Therefore, the last folds must be made by hand.³⁵

This brief tracing of the history of map reproduction will indicate how, despite our machine age, the human factor is still such an important one in the making of maps, from the preliminary sketches to the final folding of the completed article.

¹ W. W. Jervis, *The World in Maps* (New York, Oxford, 1938) p. 185.

² H. de Hutorowicz, "Maps of Primitive Peoples." *Bulletin of the American Geographical Society*, v. 41 (1911) p. 678.

³ *Loc. cit.*

⁴ *Loc. cit.*

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 672-73.

⁶ Edward A. Reeves, "The Mapping of the Earth, Past, Present and Future," *The Geographical Journal*, v. 48 (October 1916) p. 333.

⁷ Hutorowicz, *op. cit.*, p. 670.

⁸ Jervis, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 157.

¹⁰ *Loc. cit.*

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 167

¹² "A Seventeenth Century Japanese Map of the World," *The Geographical Journal*, v. 52 (November 1918) p. 303-8.

¹³ Alexander D'Agapeyeff and E. C. R. Hodfield, *Maps*, (New York, Oxford, 1942) p. 136.

¹⁴ H. G. Fordham, *Studies in Carto-Bibliography* (Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1914) p. 101.

¹⁵ Edward Lynam, *British Maps and Map-Makers* (London, William Collins, 1944) p. 35.

¹⁶ D'Agapeyeff, *op. cit.*, p. 95.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 95-96.

¹⁸ Jervis, *op. cit.*, p. 65.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 65-66.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 66-67.

²¹ H. S. L. Winterbotham, *A Key to Maps* (London, Blackie & Son, 1936) p. 72.

²² D'Agapeyeff, *op. cit.*, p. 136.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 119.

²⁴ Douglas McMurtrie, *Printing Geographic Maps with Movable Types* (New York, privately printed, 1925) p. 3-4.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 5-6.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 14-16.

³⁰ E. P. Goldschmidt, "Johannes Coclæus and a Problem in Sixteenth Century Cartography," *The Geographical Journal*, v. 82 (October 1933) p. 345.

³¹ Keith Rogers, "Why Map Makers Hate Hitler," *The Living Age*, v. 356 (April 1939) p. 173.

³² Winterbotham, *op. cit.*, p. 200.

³³ Martha G. Morrow, "Maps for Fighters," *Science News Letter*, v. 45 (April 15, 1944) p. 251.

³⁴ Rogers, *op. cit.*, p. 174.

³⁵ Winterbotham, *op. cit.*, p. 201.

Integrating Economics in the Elementary Social Studies Program

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The question is often posed, "How can economics be taught to children in the primary and intermediate grades? The study of economics because of its great scope and ramifications is naturally associated with the secondary school and college curriculum. However, we must not be misled by connotations. The understandings of economics are closely knit with the social studies objectives of the primary and intermediate grades. To divorce the understandings of economics from the social study program on these two levels would be to weaken its effectiveness.

Economic experiences can be enjoyed by young children only if a social studies curriculum is both orderly and flexible. Flexibility is most essential if initiative, resourcefulness, sound judgment and reason are to be exercised by both teacher and pupil in this phase of school work.

Social studies should also furnish children of all ages with genuine life situations, for there are very few real life situations that are not directly concerned with the economical aspect of life. Children have a far-reaching and rapidly growing concern about the "How and where" of commodities and services with which they come in daily contact. This need can be fulfilled by planning a social study program on either a primary or intermediate grade level that focuses

attention on the following economic aspects and objectives.

1. By virtue of being a social being man has the power to change economic structure of society.
2. The topography of the earth conditions the economy of man.
3. For effective living man needs clothing, food and shelter.
4. Man must carry on diversified work under different conditions to acquire the necessities of life and raise his standard of living.
5. For greater production and work efficiency man specializes in areas of work in which he excels.
6. Living in communities and pooling his resources and skills has helped man improve his way of living.
7. Sharing work in a community has helped man acquire more leisure time that he can utilize for richer cultural growth.
8. For centuries man's chief concern has been to make a better life for himself by producing more with a minimum amount of effort and time.
9. Environment affects four important areas of man's life: 1. his food; 2. his clothing; 3. his shelter; 4. his work.
10. Communication and transportation help man in his interdependence with others.

11. Social organizations formed by man help him improve his standard of living.

The areas of study suggested below are those around which the above economic understandings on a primary level can be furthered.

- I. The Family
 - A. The father
 - 1. earns the family income
 - B. The mother
 - 1. manages household expenses
 - 2. working mothers supplement family income
 - C. Other members of family
 - 1. economic relationship to each other
 - D. Pets
 - 1. expense involved in their care
- II. Taxes Provide Community Helpers
 - A. Policeman
 - B. Fireman
 - C. Postman
 - D. Teacher
 - E. Librarians
 - F. Highway Workers
 - G. Water Service
- III. For Small Individual Payments We Have Community Helpers
 - A. Milkman
 - B. Baker
 - C. Laundryman
 - D. Farmer
 - E. Telephone workers
 - F. Gas Co. workers
 - G. Electric Co. workers
 - H. Transportation workers
 - 1. bus drivers
 - 2. train conductors
 - 3. taxi drivers
 - I. Storekeepers
 - J. Doctors
 - K. Nurses
 - L. Baby Sitters
- IV. People of Other Cultures
 - A. Indians
 - 1. Environmental factors affecting their economy

Children on a primary level need to learn about the variety and number of jobs that need to be done to keep the wheels of any community turning. An awareness must be established for young children about the complex interrelationship between one economic function and another.

In the first three grades it is also advisable that the children learn about a few of these jobs in sufficient detail to enable them to understand the human skill and effort involved in the performance of these tasks.

The following suggested activities are only a few of the many classroom situations that can be created to bring about important economic comprehension to primary children.

BUYING COMMODITIES

A good way to develop the concept that money has purchasing power on a primary level is to set up a "store" in the classroom where the little children can go shopping periodically for common commodities similar to those used at home. The use of toy money is advisable. Merchandise for the store is brought in by members of the class. This "merchandise" consists of empty cans and cartons that once held the real market products. For instance, the shelves are stocked with empty Crax boxes, coffee cans, soap powder boxes, egg cartons, etc.

A unit of this type not only develops number concepts but also gives the child a clear understanding of a major economic concept. Money is the important medium of exchange throughout the civilized nations of the world.

PUBLIC SERVICES

It is important for primary children to realize that public services rendered in the community such as police service, teaching service, postal service, etc. are the outcome of direct or indirect money contributions, called taxes, made by all the members of a community.

Mail service is one public service with which the little child is very familiar, having no doubt, greeted the friendly postman on many occasions before he entered school. This fact explains why a post office activity is a desirable one to emphasize this aspect of community economics.

A corner of the classroom can be allocated for the "post office." It is here that the children buy stamps (made in art class) with toy money. The stamps are placed on envelopes the youngsters have addressed (in language arts class). The letters are then dropped into a "mailbox" the children have made and placed in a conspicuous spot in the classroom.

Next, the children sort, cancel and deliver the letters.

All the work steps involved in providing postal service make the children realize why it is necessary for community members to pay for public services that require the work of so many people.

An appropriate time to carry on a unit of this type is around Valentine time when children are motivated by the wish to send Valentines to their classmates. It is also suggested that if it is at all possible a field trip to a real post office should be arranged to make this activity more meaningful.

TRANSPORTATION SERVICES

Transportation Activities should be planned to acquaint children on a primary level with the transportation facilities and services offered in a community. Children are also taught that people pay to ride on public conveyances. There are numerous ways in which children can be made to realize these economic facts.

Using a railroad unit will offer children vicarious experiences in buying tickets, picking up passengers, shipping "Products," being on schedule, delivering mail, etc. "Trains" or "Freight cars" can be made simply by arranging 10 to 12 chairs in a straight row to represent seats on a train or the cars of a freight.

The classwork that would spontaneously lead into a unit of this nature would be some of the following.

1. Read stories about transportation
2. Build clay models of different vehicles
3. Make a transportation booklet (Find pictures of various vehicles in magazines and paste them in booklet pages. Develop vocabulary by allowing children to write names of vehicles under each picture.)

CARE OF PETS

The teacher's purpose in arranging a unit on the care of pets is to make the children realize that it costs money to care for pets properly. There are numerous ways in which to motivate such a unit. Children can become interested by planning a terrarium, visiting a nearby zoo, reading simple animal stories and poems and watching habits of animals brought to class by other members of the class.

One stimulating economic activity that could easily develop during a study of pets would be a pet show. Tickets could be made and sold thus

giving children the knowledge that people pay to support educational causes. During the pet show children can tell the cost of food they need for their pets. Discussion about the cost of licenses can also take place. These are just a few of the countless ways children can be taught that there is expense involved in caring for pets properly.

COMMUNICATION FACILITIES

Primary children need an awareness of the important part played by modern communication means on the American economy. Some communication mediums with which the small child is familiar are the telephone, the radio, the newspaper, the magazines, and television. The point is to establish the understanding that modern communication mediums help to promote sales of commodities.

Some of the activities suggested here in conjunction with a study of communication are recommended to develop simple understandings of the ways in which our modern communication methods affect the economy of the American family.

1. Make a chart with pictures of any product bought by the family as a direct result of reading about it in a newspaper or magazine, having heard about it on the radio, or seen it advertised on television.
2. Have an exhibit of commodities purchased in the homes after having seen them advertised through some medium of communication.
3. Build a model television from a fairly good-sized carton. Cut a window on one side of the carton. This opening serves as the picture tube section of the "set." Each child is responsible for making a "film" from oak tag advertising his favorite commodity. He stands behind the set, shows his "film" through the opening and gives a commercial about his favorite product.

A unit of this type serves a two-fold purpose. It not only provides youngsters with a richer economic background but it also builds good language usage and vocabulary. The children will necessarily have to learn such words as products, advertising, purchase, price, tube, volume control, etc.

THE FAMILY

One of the most important learning experiences on a primary level is for the young child to understand and realize that the family has a great significant role in his personal survival.

Special attention is beamed on the earning function of the father, mother's wise management of the family income and ways in which he and other members of the family group can make the best use of the family income.

The teacher provides materials for clear graphic presentation of the relationship of one family member to another.

Children can be asked to find pictures of different family members in old books and magazines.

Teachers should encourage children to relate family experiences that will strengthen and broaden the concept of the family group working together for one economic cause.

INDIAN ACTIVITY

Indians on reservations are quite dependent on tourist trade for their economic survival. This idea is suggested to young children during reading classes when they learn about the Indians and their crafts, particularly the art of making silver jewelry. This reading unit can be followed by an activity in which the children are permitted to "manufacture" pseudo three-dimensional jewelry from oak tag, turquoise mountings, designs and all. The "Indian jewelry" is then mounted on colored construction paper for display purposes. A price is established for each individual piece of jewelry and printed on the display cards. The jewelry is then ready to be sold to "tourists," the other members of the group. Of course, toy money is used for the transactions. This idea can be extended to include models of other objects representing Indian arts and crafts which the children feel have tourist appeal.

On an intermediate level the major areas of social studies should be chiefly concerned with,

1. People of Many Lands
2. Environmental Factors Affecting the Economy of the United States
3. Old World Economic Problems
4. How Economy of Modern European Countries is Influenced by Environment

As children progress to the fourth, fifth and sixth grades they reach a maturity that enables them to undertake one social study unit at a time. They are ready to broaden their horizon to more distant points clarifying relationship between things which are close with those that are far away. The production of economic wealth seems to interest them, particularly

those areas dealing with the production of raw materials, manufacturing plants, distribution of world products and consumers of these products.

What can teachers do to make these far-reaching economic understandings meaningful to boys and girls in the intermediate grade level? In answer to this question I am suggesting a few activities that may provide the desired aim.

The first is an activity that will make children of this age realize the great impact that agriculture has on the economic structure of the entire world. A good way to bring about this understanding is by planning to have a harvest sale. This should be planned in the fall of the year when children can bring in extra produce from their own gardens or that of their neighbors. Fall flowers can also be brought in. The classroom can be converted into a market place, where the garden produce is attractively displayed. Prevailing prices for the various products are determined by studying ads in local newspapers. A date for the "Big Sale" is set. People from the neighborhood are invited to come and buy fresh garden vegetables, fruits and flowers.

An experience of this nature helps students to understand how communities throughout the world are supplied with food by the farmers.

It will also make clear to them how money circulates, for with the proceeds from the sale they can plan to purchase something for the classroom or for any other worthwhile purpose.

On an intermediate grade level children need to understand that since time immemorial man has had to pit his intelligence against environmental forces for economic survival.

This important fact can be clearly stressed through a dramatization suggested as a culminating activity of an Egyptian unit.

The setting of the play can be staged in modern Cairo. The dialogue, the costumes and the properties will suggest clearly to the children that the Egyptians have made very little progress through the centuries. The dialogue should also suggest that certain environmental blocks are beyond the control of man.

The economy of the world is completely dependent on its natural resources. One way to establish this concept in the minds of children is by allowing them to make a series of charts

showing the natural resources found in the United States. On these charts some youngsters might like to draw pictures of the products; others might like to find pictures of their products, while others would rather make a chart showing real samples of the products when possible. The idea could be extended to include the use and by-products of each natural resource if the ability of some children permit it.

When possible, arrange field trips to places where natural products are manufactured into finished goods for consumer distribution. This will make children realize more keenly how essential resources are to keep the wheels of industry turning so that a better life for man can be provided.

Teachers should provide situations that will make their classes see vividly the important part played by their community in the industrial framework of our country. This conception could be made quite simple if plans are made to hold an industrial fair in the classroom.

First, it is suggested that a preliminary discussion be held, during which time the children list all the products they know are manufactured or produced in the community.

This list can be augmented during a second discussion period after they have had a chance to do a little research and inquiring in the neighborhood.

Each child is then responsible for bringing in one or more of the products listed. An attractive display of the products is arranged in the classroom. Plan to have each child prepare a chart or a paper to accompany his exhibit that will inform other members of the class about the source of the raw material used in the manufactured object. In this way the child not only learns about the goods manufactured in his community but also becomes conscious of the great interdependence of communities throughout the world. It is also suggested that the children plan to invite interested citizens to their industrial fair.

During this time a survey should be taken to learn how many family incomes are dependent on wages earned in plants where the products exhibited are manufactured. Thus the child is made vividly aware that his own economic welfare is closely related to world economics.

Civilization by Stages

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A college course in Western Civilization or World History need not be a slightly enlarged coverage of the high school course. College freshmen and sophomores ought to receive encouragement in the study of history. Dis- courage- ment is often their lot. Most students have had a high school course in World History and are bored with extensive re-teaching. The assumption that all college students have forgotten most of their previous social studies is unsound. The previous learning is there and must be a base on which is built any attractive and challenging college course.

At Utica College we have developed such a course to meet the needs of the freshmen and sophomores; it has been in operation for three years. The approach seems both stimulating and attractive. We use a standard text and we use a syllabus. Other aids are utilized as the situation permits but the syllabus contains the

core of the plan. Ten stages of Western Civilization are presented as the divisions to be studied. These stages are generations of real people who inherited culture, lived in it, and modified it. By studying carefully a generation here and a generation there, and noting the major differences and similarities, we believe we not only keep the students awake but also stimulate them to look forward to a greater understanding of our civilization through further study. We think quite a few of our students come out of the course with a greater appreciation of history and also acquire a desire to fill in gaps and expand special interests.

Augustan Rome is the first stage. It sets the plan of the course. The students know that there was something worthwhile and great in the Mediterranean area prior to Augustus. They are not alarmed by reading in two pages that the Romans received much from their ancestors

and predecessors. They are quite ready to discuss the Augustan generation by the syllabus summary. The major subdivisions for studying each selected generation are as follows: home and family, the economic system, science and technology, the individual and his government, fine arts, and the geographical extent of Western Civilization. Each subdivision has a page or so of descriptive summary in the syllabus and has a few attractive references from our library. The Augustan generation with nine others makes up the course.

The text is next in importance. The chapters are designated as required or optional according to whether they apply to one of the stages or not. Any good text could be used but the syllabus is necessary to keep the discussion focused on the ways of each particular generation or stage. A text alone seems to pull the student away from the real life of the time. Too many centuries have to be covered. The text only supplements the syllabus in our course.

The other stages in the plan are:

The Age of Justinian (527-565)
Feudalism (1050-1100)
Middle Ages (1300-1350)
Early Renaissance (1450-1500)
Age of Religious War (1600-1650)
Revolution (1775-1815)

Industrialization (1840-1865)

Western Civilization—Expanded (1890-1913)

Our Times (1945-present)

We chose the stages so that the students might study the selected generations all along the way and without the great generalizing that so often typifies the treatment of the sixth to the sixteenth centuries. We also desired to have the students conclude their study with great interest in recent directions and problems. With these two goals in mind, we spaced the earlier generations further apart and the recent ones more closely together. We want the students to be thoughtful about the immediate future of our civilization. Without assigning it we recommend that the students become acquainted with Toynbee's interpretations. Without threats we suggest strongly that they read Barbara Ward's comments. At the same time we do not neglect good articles and books dealing with fine arts, the family, science and technology, economic and political problems. Our aim is to make of the course a framework on which students can attach all their knowledge. Discussion in class helps to assign the knowledge to an appropriate place. The way is opened for continuous addition of new information and continuous evaluation of new interpretations of Western life. This history course lies open at its conclusion—not closed.

Europe in Senescence or Renascence

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Shortly before Prince Gortchakoff (1798-1883) died he soliloquized: "Austria is a cadaver already in a state of putrefaction." Currently some Americans apply that estimate of the Habsburg Monarchy to all Europe, while others still view the old continent as the center of culture and the hope of the world. The remarkable resurgence of Germany, and to a certain extent, of England after World War II reveals the enduring dynamism of these pioneers in industrialization. On the other hand England's grant of independence or home rule to Ceylon, India, Pakistan and Burma since 1945, and France's weakness in Indo-China as

well as her difficulties in North Africa constitute indisputable evidence of national regression.

Europe today seems less significant than it formerly did because it has fulfilled one of its main missions: it has Europeanized the rest of the world. Even as Europe developed its magnificence it disseminated the secrets of its grandeur, for its culture accompanied its exports, and, now finally after centuries of tutelage the rest of the world has plagiarized the old world's way of life, and in the process England, France, Germany, and Italy have yielded some of their glamor to their imitators.

Europe's prosperity, upon which its power

was based, rested upon industrialism and mercantilism. Europe, the pioneer in industrialism, exploited the economic backwardness of the rest of the world. It bought cheap and sold dear. By purchasing raw materials at ridiculously low prices, transferring them to Europe for processing, and then reselling the finished articles at all the traffic would bear, Europe enriched itself more lavishly than Spain had done by enslaving the natives of Central and South America to mine gold and silver for the coffers of Madrid. Spanish conquistadors robbed and killed without the law; English, French, Dutch and German entrepreneurs rigged the law—the economic law—and operated within it, piled fortune upon fortune, and with this treasure developed Europe into the world's economic dynamo.

What upset Europe's system was that non-European countries not only copied it, but improved upon it. They built bigger and better factories, bigger and better transportation systems, bigger and better communication channels, bigger and better banks, and what is more important, bigger and better research laboratories. These compounded new products and conjured novel processes. In 1952 the United States, independent of atomic research, expended \$3,500,000,000 on laboratory findings, a per capita seven times as large as that in England. Not only can the research laboratory make an industry, but it can also destroy another one if it does not avail itself of scientific developments. European industry competes at a serious disadvantage because it has not discarded the antiquated and incorporated the new.

Business vigor demands reinvestment of earnings in the plant. Europe's default in this regard has penalized its productivity. From 1918 to 1939 the British invested only 3 per cent of industry's earnings in their plants, and the French even less while American investments ranged from 15 to 20 per cent. The Soviet Union, in 1954, will invest \$22,500,000,000 (at the official rate of four rubles to the dollar) on expansion of key industrial plants. The French in the period between the wars were reluctant to reinvest in their plants for fear of a Communist coup which would confiscate industrial firms. From 1934 to 1939 the French exported more than two billion dollars

and thereby deprived their industry of funds for reconstruction. Many farmers buried their savings for safekeeping under their manure piles. While French manure piles could be redeemed in gold this liquidity did not improve industrial productivity. It is estimated that, at the present time, \$6,000,000,000 of monetary gold are hoarded by the French. French industry in the period from 1929 to 1939 actually experienced a disinvestment or decapitalization, and in the latter year it produced less than it had done a decade earlier.

Another factor that hamstrung European industrial advance has been its failure to utilize engineering talent. European industrial executives are not so generally drawn from engineers as are American, nor do European factories employ so large a quota of engineers as do our firms. In 1900 American industry employed one engineer for every 250 workers; in 1953 one for every 60. The number of our chemists increases by 100 per cent every 15 years, that of our physicists every eight years. The number of our technicians, engineers, chemists and physicists increased fourfold in the period from 1930 to 1950. Likewise, European countries were reluctant to establish schools of business administration because "business" was not regarded as a gentleman's vocation. The American public has not been hamstrung by any such complex. We now have approximately 125 schools of business administration; more than 400 of our universities and colleges offer majors in this field.

European industrial progress has also been retarded by the relatively small number of its college graduates. Today there are only approximately 300,000 students in its institutions of higher education in Germany, France and England. In the United States there are 2,000,000. During the last one hundred years college enrollment in the United States has increased thirty-five times as rapidly as the increase in population. This constant influx of college-trained people, by no means all of them going into industry, has materially accelerated industrial productivity.

Another factor that has slackened European industrial efficiency is the relatively small amount of mechanical power at the service of its workers. European laborers have the use of only three horsepower while Americans

have eight. This in addition to other factors accounts for the fact that American workers, according to the Stanford Research Institute, are three times as productive as their counterparts in western Europe. Workers in Sweden and England, the most productive in western Europe, are only half as productive as the Americans, while Italians and Spaniards are only one-fifth and one-seventh as productive respectively as those of the United States. It is therefore not surprising that Europe's share of world industrial production has shrunk.

PER CENT OF WORLD PRODUCTION

	United States	United Germany	Kingdom	France	Russia	Italy	Canada	Total
1870	23.2	13.2	31.8	10.3	3.7	2.4	1.0	
1881-85	28.6	13.9	26.6	8.6	3.4	2.4	1.3	
1896-00	30.1	16.9	19.5	7.1	5.0	2.7	1.4	
1906-10	35.3	15.9	14.7	6.4	5.0	3.1	2.0	
1913	35.8	15.7	14.0	6.4	5.5	2.7	2.3	
1926-29	42.2	11.6	9.4	6.6	4.3	3.3	2.4	
1936-38	32.2	10.7	9.2	4.5	18.5	2.7	2.0	
1952	40.9	8.1	8.5	3.7	17.7	2.0	2.6	
	Belgium	Sweden	Finland	Japan	India	Others		Total
1870	2.9	0.4				11.0	100	
1881-85	2.5	0.6	0.3			12.0	100	
1896-00	2.2	1.1	0.3	0.6	1.1	12.3	100	
1906-10	2.0	1.1	0.3	1.0	1.2	12.0	100	
1913	2.1	1.1	0.3	1.2	1.1	11.9	100	
1926-29	1.9	1.0	0.4	2.5	1.2	13.2	100	
1936-38	1.3	1.3	0.5	3.5	1.4	12.2	100	
1952	1.0	1.2	0.2	2.2	0.9	10.9	100	

Not only is Europe producing a smaller share of the world's industrial output, but it is also exporting a diminishing share of the world's commodities. In the ten-year period from 1871 to 1880 Europe exported 81.8 per cent of the world's exports; in 1951 it exported 26.9 per cent of the world's exports. In 1821 it imported 64.2 per cent of the world's imports; in 1951 it imported 18.6 per cent. Theodore White in *Fire In The Ashes* says "The tides of trade in which Europe had lived vanished. Like a dead whale left gasping on the sand for breath, Europe lay rotting in the sun." When, after the discovery of America, the trade routes shifted from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, the flourishing Italian cities became stagnant commercial centers. With the growth of industry and commerce in Canada, Japan, China and India, and in time in South America the industrial center of gravity will vacate Europe, and Germany, France, England and the Low Countries will have to exert themselves to escape the commercial paralysis that settled upon Venice, Genoa and Milan.

Much of Europe's income prior to World War I came from hidden sources, such as interest on foreign investments, manipulation of exchange rates, shipping fees, discounts, remittances from Europeans living abroad, and tourist fees. These sources of revenue, before 1914, constituted a golden transfusion which energized a continent against which, even in 1880, the economic cards, were already stacked. In 1914 England's foreign investments amounted to eighteen billion dollars. France's came to nine billion dollars and Germany's stood at six billions. These investments yielded enormous dividends, Germany's ranging from 10 to 20 per cent, and occasionally much higher. British cotton mill owners in India reaped profits ranging from 125 to 200 per cent annually on their investments. When the Khedive of Egypt borrowed \$410,000,000 from London bankers he received only \$105,000,000 while the remaining \$305,000,000 were retained as security and commissions. European contractors over-charged the Khedive from 80 to 400 per cent on contracts. Leopold II of Belgium extracted enormous profits through indescribable brutalities from the Congolese. German bankers cleared \$25,000,000 in commissions alone in building the first section of the Berlin-Baghdad Railroad, plus an additional \$45,000,000 on the cost of construction. French, Italian and Dutch businessmen buttered their investments with similar spreads of profit.

Two world wars have just about liquidated these sources of income. In 1913 Germany drew \$840,000,000 in invisible income, France a little more than one billion dollars, and even as late as 1920 England secured \$2,144,000,000 from this source. By 1950 this income, except for shipping fees, had almost vanished. What is worse, these once-creditor nations have become debtor countries. England's obligations to India, Canada and the United States impose a heavy drain upon its treasury.

This development has contributed substantially to the hard times of Europe. Europe today is producing and exporting more than it ever did, but it is without much of the invisible income which formerly balanced budgets, compensated for unfavorable balances of trade, provided luxuries for the aristocracy, comforts for the bourgeois, and necessities for the proletariat.

Though Europe's recovery since World War II has been commendable it could have been even more gratifying than it is. European industrialists aim to produce just under what the market will consume in order to exact a maximum price on their commodities. Industry there never produces its utmost output because this depresses prices. Furthermore industry in the various European countries is protected by tariffs, quotas, cartel agreements which divide the market, and fix the prices, all of which reduces the economic pulsations from Spain to Norway.

Low European wages further limit the consuming market. In the United States, on the other hand, high wages provide wage-earners with a large purchasing power. This invites maximum production at minimum profit per item, the formula for quantity output. The European practice of maximum profit per item to a restricted market strictures production; the American stimulates it.

After the defeat of Napoleon a lady asked the Duke of Wellington, "What is victory like?" whereupon the Duke replied, "The greatest tragedy in the world, Madame, except defeat." During the last thirty years Europe has experienced two world wars, each one almost equally destructive to victor and vanquished. It took Europe one-hundred years to recover from the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648), an age that was innocent and ignorant of blockbusters, flying missiles and nuclear physics. How long it will take Europe to recover from two carnivals of destruction must be left to Arnold Toynbee III. By 1914 England had not paid her Napoleonic war debt. Most of the Continental countries liquidated their national indebtedness by inflations, but these left legacies of cynicism and disillusionment which froze initiative, stifled enterprise and blurred vision. Europeans today scorn thrift for in the past it has been paid for in current denial and ultimate loss.

No yardstick can measure the human loss of two world wars. Missing are millions of laborers whose employment would have enriched the continent. The prospective twentieth century Galileos, Newtons, Hegels and Verdis repose in the military cemeteries in France and Flanders. Well might Europeans chant with Cassius: "Alas, alas, we have lost the breed of noble men."

By revoking the Edict of Nantes (1685) Louis XIV deprived the Huguenots of religious toleration, in consequence of which thousands of them escaped to countries where religious toleration prevailed. These refugees escaped not merely with their consciences, but also with their skills, the loss of which was a serious economic injury to France. But it was of small consequence compared to the damage the totalitarian chieftains inflicted upon Europe through their efforts to attain cultural and political unity. Since the end of World War I Russia, Germany and Italy have experienced a serious intellectual loss through the exodus of men who prefer exile to spiritual stagnation. To our own shores, and to others where freedom prevails, came artists, musicians, literati, scientists and composers who have enriched the land of their adoption in proportion to the cultural loss sustained by the countries which they left. In consequence, Europe no longer commands the scholarly pre-eminence that formerly was hers.

The Nobel awards confirm this altered situation. During the first ten years when these awards were granted (1901-1910) Europeans won all but two of them, the two going to citizens of the United States. During the last ten years (1944-1953) Europeans were assigned twenty-seven and one-half awards while citizens of the United States captured eighteen and one-half.

Half a century ago when an American wanted the best in medical or surgical care he went to the renowned clinics of Europe. That trend has now been reversed, for ailing Africans, Asians and even Europeans converge upon our medical centers in preference to those of Vienna, Paris or Berlin. It was of no small significance that Anthony Eden, after two unsuccessful operations in England came to the Boston Baptist Hospital for treatment, and recovered. Other distinguished foreigners who have come for medical and surgical care are Elpidio Quirino of the Philippines, King Pro-jahdipok of Siam, Madame Chiang Kai-Shek and Eva Peron. Cardinal Stepnac has engaged the professional service of an American doctor. The American Medical Association has no record of recent departures of Americans for Europe in quest of health.

In the field of music Europe no longer over-

shadows the rest of the world as it formerly did. Today Pizzetti and Malipiero in Italy, Vaughn Williams and Britten in England, Sibelius in Finland, Honegger in Switzerland, Milhaud and Poulenc in France are the best that Europe can offer but they compare unfavorably with eighteenth century celebrities such as J. S. Bach, C. P. E. Bach, W. F. Bach, Brahms, Hayden, Mozart, Beethoven, Pergolesi, Puccini and many others whose themes haunt our memories. Contemporary American-born composers, Leonard Bernstein, Aaron Copland, Henry Cogwell, Howard Hanson and Bernard Rogers are perhaps no better, but neither any poorer, than their European colleagues. Olin Downes, indeed, maintains that "We are in the golden age of orchestral performance. The composers who are technically capable of composing and scoring a symphony can be numbered by the hundreds."

It is no longer necessary for aspiring young American musicians, as formerly it was, to go to Europe for training and for the accolade of its critics. Some still go there, but it is no longer a *sine qua non* for success. Nor is it necessary for the professionally ambitious American to add European affixes to their names. To command favorable interest Miss Munsel does not have to masquerade as Mlle. Munselevsky; Helen Traubel does not have to disguise herself as Helena Traubeletta, nor does Dorothy Kirsten have to sham as Dorothea Kirshinskaya. It would be difficult to prove Europe's Erna Fach, Renata Tebaldi, and Elizabeth Schwartzkopf superior to Rise Stevens, Carol Brice, George London and Jan Peerce. Since American concert fees are at least three times as high as those in Europe a large number of talented Europeans come to our shores. Europe's loss is our gain.

In painting likewise Europe no longer commands the field as it once did, chiefly because European dictators prescribed the kind of art they wanted and got what they had ordered, especially from second-rate painters. The best of them sought exile rather than spiritual immolation. Europe still has eminent painters in George Braque, Pablo Picasso, Georges Roualt and Ferdinand Leger, but they scarcely belong in the class with Rembrandt, Holbein, El Greco and Vermeer, and they are little if any superior to the modern American Stuart Davis, Jackson

Pollock, Jack Levine and Ben Shahn. The American artists' practice of the nineteen-twenties of exiling themselves in Europe belongs to the "Babbittry and the boorishness" of a vanished phase of American history. Until recently Europe was the creator of art; now it is the curator of art, and even that distinction is vanishing, for New York has become the art market of the world.

In literature what contemporary Europeans can compare with Tennyson, Wordsworth, Goethe, Schiller, Lessing, Flaubert, Daudet, Dostoevsky, Turgenev and Tolstoy? Present day authors lack the fine edge of reason and the shimmer of lyricism. The muses are mute.

In the scientific fields, especially in the theoretical aspects, Europeans are making outstanding contributions. The discovery and development of radar, the jet plane, guided missiles and the fundamental research behind the atomic bomb reveal an intellectual vitality of a high order. But even in this field Europe has suffered an intellectual hemorrhage, for after 1933 numerous Germans and Italians expatriated themselves to the United States, in fact so large a number that the remaining ones attributed that exodus as the reason for our primacy in the development of the atomic bomb.

Formerly it was assumed that no one could shed the real cultural glow until he had been polished off at Oxford, the Sorbonne, Berlin or Vienna. These institutions still maintain a high excellence of scholarship, but they no longer possess a monopoly in the administration of academic luster. While students still converge upon European universities, American institutions of higher education are attracting an increasing number of scholars from abroad. During 1951-52 30,462 students from 126 countries registered in 1,354 colleges and universities of the United States, and among them were 7,220 students from Europe.

Europe is not degenerating, but it has attained maturity. It will still continue to forge ahead economically, but the days of its phenomenal advances are over. Henceforth extraordinary achievements will be recorded by populous countries with abundant resources. Their accomplishments will dwarf the output of the pioneers in the field of industry. The coming giants have scarcely attained factory adolescence. When Japan, China, India, Canada,

Brazil and Argentina with their hundreds of millions of people shall add their full-blown industrial might to that of the United States and the Soviet Union, Europe's share will contract to an even smaller proportion than it is now.

The eclipse of Europe in the economic field will reduce its contributions in the cultural. In the future there will be a declining number who can maintain themselves on investments. An increasing number must therefore devote all of their time to satisfy their animal requirements. Leisure will vanish, and without time for reflection and meditation culture shrivels.

Europe, polite, artistic, and mature, the scene of tragedy and chaos, is afflicted with war shock. Most of its people are inclined to believe that the worst disaster which could possibly overtake them would be another war. Many would rather submit to aggression than oppose it. To fortify that outlook they have developed "neutralism," which is merely a subtle defeatism. They beseech us for soldiers yet resent their presence, and fear their departure. In one moment they endorse containment of Russia; in the next they consider appeasement. France and England with vivid memories of past grandeur are irked by their submission to Uncle Sam. They yield to Washington rather than surrender to the Kremlin. But there is neither pride nor pleasure in serving those whom they formerly patronized.

Europe is weakened by disunity. No longer can any continental claim, as Disraeli did for England "the splendor of the Crown, the lustre of the Peerage, the privileges of the Commons, the rights of the poor; that magnificent concord of all interests, of all classes, on which our national greatness and prosperity depend." Now, on the contrary, conflict has superseded cooperation. The class struggle blooms in all its glory—or horror. Within countries class exploits class, and interest checkmates interest to the point that some European premiers hesitate to sponsor controversial legislation for fear of violent reaction. In France and Italy the tenure of governments depends upon *l'immobilisme* of their administration. Sterility is fruitful of only decay, or explosion.

Concord is also missing in European commercial relations. With the exception of the Ruhr Coal and Iron Combine the European powers have barricaded themselves behind

tariff walls almost as impregnable to foreign goods as the Maginot Line was supposed to have been to an alien army. This strictures commerce, limits production and impoverishes the population. Legislative interference with the free flow of commerce also blocks the friendly intercourse between nations and thereby fosters international antagonism.

Europe is not only menaced from within but also threatened from without. Asians, dormant for centuries, are aflame with nationalism. On the Far Eastern skies they have caught a glimpse of their dignity, pride and power. Deep in their consciousness they have revolted against European exploitation. In their image of the future they envision independence, progress and prosperity. The obstacle to their aspirations is European imperialism and they are determined to shake off the shackles of thrall-dom. Behind Korea, Indo-China, Malaya, Afghanistan, Kenya, behind anyone who is anti-European is the Kremlin stoking the fires of rebellion, bargaining in capitalist collateral, and promising an Oriental Nirvana. In one generation Asia holds Europe responsible for the sins of centuries. Along the Ganges, Mekong and Yangtze, Russia, with promises, wins more friends than we do with performances. Toynbee, indeed, insists that the "spiritual leadership of the world has gone to Russia."

Europe is not necessarily destined for history's scrap bin. An area comprising 300,000,000 people, possessing unsurpassed intellect and skill, endowed with rich natural resources, and vast industrial equipment will survive, but not in its past primacy. The parade of potentates from all over the world symbolizes the changes in its center of gravity. Economics, armed strength, nationalism and education, formerly monopolized by Europe, have been diffused, more or less, to all mankind from whom it reacts against the old continent. To rescue as much of its former prestige as possible Europe must reconcile itself to the inevitable consequences of its changed position. It must, first of all, make the continent a fit place for all its people to live, not a purgatory for the masses, and a paradise for the classes. European capitalism must be made more attractive to the people than anything that Communists can deliver. Furthermore, Europe must unite, or it will be Sovietized.

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

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TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING

Two effective audience-participation techniques with the use of films, particularly in courses dealing with human relations, family life, and mental health, were described in detail in *Mental Hygiene*, April 1955.¹ Both techniques involve role playing and projection. The essential features of each method are as follows:

Technique 1 — The "Feeling With" Method

Steps:

A. Audience or student preparation phase

1. Announce the name of the film and give a brief account of the plot and description of the principal characters.
2. Encourage the students to try to *live through* the experiences of the characters in the film, when it is being shown. Comments by the teacher that may help student identification with the principal characters are: "See it through their eyes;" "Step into their shoes to get a sense of what is going on inside the other person;" "Feel the experience as though you are living it."
3. Divide the class into several groups and ask each group to identify itself with one of the characters. Say to one group: "Feel with the mother;" to another: "Actually be one with the father."
4. Show the film.

B. "Buzz session" phase

1. After the viewing of the film have each group "buzz" (talk quietly among themselves) for five to ten minutes. Teachers may have to explain to their students the nature and purpose of buzz groups.
2. Suggest that members share their feelings and their reactions which they experienced in their roles.
3. The teacher should move about from group to group and, if necessary, help to stimulate the discussions.

C. Interview phase

1. Reassemble groups. Address each group by the names of character it has assumed, as "Mothers," "Dads," "Margarets." State that any member may talk for any group.

2. Direct such questions as the following to each of the groups:—"Dad, how do you feel about what happened? Did you feel that the others really understood you?"—"Mother, how did you feel about Dad when he became mad?"—"Margaret, how did you feel when your mother decided to remarry?"

3. *Interaction phase.* Although this phase is listed next, it is best when the interaction phase is part of the interviewing phase.

1. After one or more members of a group have expressed their feelings in answer to one of the above questions, members of other groups, representing other characters, may wish to reply. Encourage such interchange of expression of feelings.

2. At the beginning, members of the group may intellectualize. Try to steer them to talk about how they feel.

4. *Summarization phase.* Several patterns of summarization are possible:

1. Have the groups again go into a buzz session in order to summarize their conclusion. One member from each group will then report to the class as a whole.
2. Have a resource person (usually an expert in the field under discussion) present his views on what the class seemed to have learned.
3. The teacher together with the class evaluates the experience. Some questions that may be helpful are: "What mistakes were made by each of the characters?" "What steps can be taken to better these relationships?" "What common daily little things that can be done in the home do you think might help?"

Technique 2—The "Helping Group" Technique

This is primarily a projective technique approach and can be very exciting. The authors use the film "Fears of Children" to illustrate this method. The story describes how an over-protective, over-anxious mother and a somewhat over-strict father can produce exaggerated fears in a sensitive child.

Steps:

1. Select a portion of the film which presents a problem but doesn't solve it. In this case the portion of the film (about five minutes) selected for viewing was the following:

Two mothers are shown walking along the street, preceded by their respective sons on tricycles. The boys speed ahead and leave their tricycles to explore a cave in a pile of rocks. One boy experiences fear of the cave's darkness and cries out. The mothers run to the rescue, and the mother of the frightened child displays a questionable form of solicitude or protectiveness. Concerned by this behavior, the second mother invites the fearful boy's mother to coffee. In the absence of the boys she begins to talk in a helpful way with the over-solicitous mother. (Turn off film here.)

2. Announce the title of the film and state that a brief portion of it will be shown. Describe the plot of this sequence briefly.
3. Tell students that after they see it, he (the teacher) or some other person will assume the role of the mother of the disturbed child, and that they should identify themselves with the helpful mother and offer constructive suggestions.
4. Show selected sequence of film.
5. Person acting as mother of fearful child should be prepared to make comments and ask questions such as:
"I've tried to do the right things. Why is he afraid?"
"Can you give me any idea what to do?"
"Haven't you had a problem like mine?"
"I've told him it's foolish to be afraid, but he still stays afraid."

Experience with this technique, the authors state, brings forth a "rather lively interaction,

with many people taking turn in the helping process."

6. After the interchange reaches its peak, it is advisable to cut it short and show the entire film.
7. Follow with discussion and summarization.

Learning, to be effective, must train not only the intellect but also the emotions. Techniques such as the above contribute effectively to this dual purpose.

CORRECTING A WEAKNESS IN SCHOLARSHIP AWARDS

Current practices, existing in many communities, of granting scholarships to students on the basis of their scholastic standing in the graduating class, or on the basis of their rating in competitive examinations, frequently results in the awarding of scholarships to many students who are not financially in need of them. This is a weakness in the scholarship programs in that it reduces the funds that might otherwise be available for boys and girls who have the aptitude but not the financial means to go to college. This weakness in the manner of awarding scholarships is being recognized and corrected by a newly created scholarship fund.

Joining forces, the Ford Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation, each contributing respectively \$20,000,000 and \$500,000, have created the National Merit Scholarship Corporation. For the first ten years the corporation will spend \$1,000,000 a year for four-year scholarships. Business and other foundations will be asked to match \$8,000,000 of the Corporation's additional funds for subsequent distribution. Although scholarship awards will be based on competitive examinations, the amount of the grant will depend upon the financial needs of the individual and the tuition fees of the college of his choice. As now conceived, a grant may have a maximum of \$11,000 for the four years, covering all costs of tuition, books and living expenses, or a minimum of \$100, where there is no financial need. Well-to-do students may therefore have the honor of winning such a scholarship, and yet not deprive other students in need of financial aid from receiving it. The following is the procedure for awarding the scholarships:

High schools who wish to participate will screen and select applicants by competitive ex-

aminations, each fall. Those with the highest scores will then take the College Entrance Examination Board's scholastic aptitude tests. The top highest-scoring candidates, approximately ten times the number of available scholarships, will then be screened on the basis of financial and other information about themselves. ETS (Educational Testing Service) will conduct the examinations. More than 50,000 students are expected to participate.

OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Thirty-seven years ago the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education formulated what became popularly known as the Seven Objectives of Secondary Education. Since then various educational groups proposed other objectives, such as the Ten Imperative Needs of Youth, in terms of *Life-Adjustment Education*.

If public education is to reflect both the culture of our society as well as its needs, objectives of education must be periodically re-evaluated and if necessary restated. Action in this direction has been taken by the Russell Sage Foundation and the Educational Testing Service.²

Assisting these two agencies in an advisory capacity, will be the following organizations: the United States Office of Public Education; the National Association of Secondary School Principals; the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; and the American Association of School Administrators.

The study will be limited to the objectives of general education. The objectives themselves will be expressed in *behavioral terms* and related to the study of the objectives of elementary education published by ETS in 1953.

HUMAN BEHAVIOR AND SOCIAL LIVING

A Course Outline in Lesson Form

for

High School Students

LESSON 2

TO ACQUIRE AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE BIOLOGIC FOUNDATIONS OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR

Beginning the Lesson

- A. Have a class discussion on: "Which is a stronger force in human behavior, hunger or love?"
- B. Lead to a consideration of the importance

of the biologic make-up of the individual with respect to his overall behavior.

Words and Concepts We Need To Know and Understand

Aggressiveness: A tendency toward self-assertion. Desirable aggressive qualities include self-confidence, leadership abilities, boldness, initiative, but blended with consideration for the rights of others.

Undesirable aggressive qualities include self-centeredness, overconfidence, a drive to get ahead without considering the rights of other people.

Biologic: Refers to the functioning of the body and its various organs.

Glands: Organs like the heart or liver which have special functions in the continuance of life.

Endocrine glands: Known also as ductless glands, because their secretions (known as hormones) enter directly into the blood stream. The principal endocrine glands and their functions will be treated in detail in another lesson.

Intelligence: The extent of the individual's *in-nate* ability to learn and to apply his learning in solving problems. Modern psychology regards intelligence as a function of the total make-up of the individual, not only that of the brain alone. Emotional factors, health, and the functioning of the various glands contribute to the degree of intelligence one possesses. Intelligence is sometimes divided into several kinds: *Intellectual intelligence*—having to do with verbal ideas; *mathematical intelligence*—concerned with solving mathematical problems; *social intelligence*—ability to work and get along with people; *mechanical intelligence*—skill in working with machines and tools.

Protoplasm: The basic living substance that makes up the composition of all living organisms.

Biologic Urges, Drives, Needs—In People

Man's behavior on the biologic plane is motivated by at least two fundamental urges or drives. An urge is an inner state of tension (disturbance, discomfort, pain) which acts in the nature of a force—*moving* the individual to some kind of behavior which will remove or lessen the tension. The body's need for water, for example, manifests itself in a tension known

as *thirst*. To remove that tension which can become very disturbing, unpleasant and painful, the individual is moved to seek water. Similarly, the body's need for food, creates a disturbance known as *hunger* and a drive to seek food. Other urges or needs have to do with *seeking warmth* when the body is cold; *seeking air* when there isn't enough oxygen; *wanting to be active* when the body has had sufficient rest; *seeking rest or sleep* when the body has engaged in too much physical activity; *seeking a mate* when the sex urge has been stimulated; *avoiding anything which is painful* (damaging in some way) to the body, like fire, a sharp point or pressure. In general, it can be said that these fundamental biologic urges become powerful driving forces when they fail to be satisfied. In countries where there is a scarcity of food, for example, hunger plays a much more significant role in the behavior and life of the people than in our country. Stories you have read of famine or of people marooned on the ocean illustrate how powerful a force hunger and thirst can become.

Although several biologic urges or needs have been mentioned above, they may be grouped under the two fundamental urges:

1. The urge for self preservation or protection (the urge to live)
2. The urge for preservation of the species (reproductive or sex urge)

THINGS To Do

A. Answer the Following Questions

1. In what ways are human beings similar to such animals as the monkey, cow and chicken?
2. In what ways are human beings different from these animals?
3. What are urges or drives?

4. What implications (possible conclusions) can be drawn from the behavior of salmon?
5. What are some of the things which produce tensions?
6. What are the two principal biologic urges or needs?
7. What is meant by a drive-to-goal cycle? (Give illustrations)

B. Projects and Reports

1. Make a reproduction of the diagram: Biologic Foundations of Personality. (Given in text material prepared by writer.)
2. Write a sentence or a short paragraph on each of the words defined in the vocabulary section.
3. Individual or committee reports.
 - a. The Theory of Evolution
 - b. Contribution of animal psychology to our knowledge of Human Behavior.

C. What to Read

Engle, T. L., *Psychology*. Chapter 7. Biological Foundations of Behavior.

Crabbe, Paul, *We Call It Human Nature*. Smith, Ella Thea, *Exploring Biology*. Unit V. Activity Is Characteristic of Living Things.

Jordan, Helen Mougey (Editor) *You and Marriage*. Chapter 13. The Endocrine Glands.

Sorenson, Herbert and Malm, Marguerite, *Psychology for Living*. Chapter 2. How Your Nerves and Glands Operate to Help You.

¹ Hollister, William Gray and Husband, Grant W., "Two Role Playing Methods of Using Mental Health Films and Plays." Mental Hygiene, April 1955.

² ETS Developments. September 1955.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER
Washington Junior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

Top-notch teaching materials on aviation education may be ordered from National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Ave. N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

A Day in the Life of a Test Pilot. 32 pages, color cover, fully illustrated, 50 cents.

This is the story of the business day of a flying engineer; the knowledge he must have, the gear he wears, the equipment he uses.

Aircraft Number 116. 32 pages, fully illustrated, 50 cents.

This is the story of the aircraft plant, the

assembly of thousands of complicated parts in the production of Number 116.

Helicopters. 32 pages, fully illustrated, color cover, 50 cents.

It covers the operations of the helicopter, its characteristic advantages.

Young America Films, Inc., 48 E. 41 St., New York, N. Y., has just published a new filmstrip catalog listing more than 570 filmstrips for elementary, secondary, and colleges.

International Film Bureau Inc., 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill., has published a descriptive list entitled "16 mm. Films in Health, Education, and Welfare."

FILMS

The Middle East: Crossroads of Three Continents. 1½ reels. Sound. B&W. or Color. Sale or Rental. Coronet Films, Inc., Coronet Building, Chicago, Ill.

Scarcity of rainfall and water supply, the significance of being international crossroads, and the importance of rich oil deposits are three ideas developed in relation to the countries of the Middle East.

China: The Land and the People. 1½ reels. Sound. B&W. or Color. Sale or Rental. Coronet Films, Inc.

Stressing the essential characteristics and differences between North and South China, this film presents an overview of the country whose population is greater than that of any other country in the world.

Thursday's Children. 2 reels. 22 min. Sale or Rental. British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

This is a film about very small deaf children, depicting the type of training needed to train such children.

Churchill: Man of the Century. 2 reels. 21 min. Sale or Rental. British Information Services.

Presents a brief biographical sketch of the greatest British statesman and leader of our time. It ends with scenes of his eightieth birthday celebration of the much discussed portrait by Graham Sutherland.

Step by Step. 20 min. Sale or Rental. International Film Bureau, Inc., 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill.

Film deals with juvenile delinquency in an urban neighborhood where physical and human deterioration has occurred.

Farming in South China: Si River Valley. Earth and Its People Series. 20 min. Sound. B&W. Sale. United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y.

Shows intensive subsistence type of agriculture in a densely populated South China.

Oriental City: Canton, China. Earth and Its People Series. 20 min. Sound. B&W. Sale. United World Films, Inc.

Depicts habits, customs, and life of Oriental city.

Sampan Family. 16 min. Sound. B&W. Sale. Text-Film Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York, N. Y.

Reveals the story of the families who live aboard these river boats.

The Sound of a Stone. 15 min. Sound. B&W. or Color. Sale or Rental. Methodist Publishing House, Board of Social and Economic Relations, 740 Rush St., Chicago, Ill.

Depicts effects of rumor and gossip.

Man's Use of Power, 35 mm, 50 frames, color, \$6.50, issued by Popular Science Publishing Co., Audio-Visual Division, 353 Fourth Ave., New York 10, N. Y.

By simple progression from fundamental process of muscle power, through more involved concepts of wind power, steam, water power, steam, and electricity, pupils are led to an examination of atomic structure and its relation to the broad fields of energy and matter. (Jr.H., H.S.)

FILMSTRIPS

The United Nations: First Decade. 58 fr. B&W. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, The New York Times, Times Square, New York 36, N. Y.

Explores mankind's search for peace and the structure and operations of the U.N.'s decade. Assesses the manifold social and economic activities of the U.N., and then takes up the organization's political record, the critical achievements and setbacks that have marked the U.N.'s decade.

Building Our Cities. 30 fr. Sale. VEC., Inc., 2066 Helena St., Madison 4, Wisc.

Shows how unsightly city buildings and areas can be concealed or reconstructed to make orderly, beautiful environment.

Italy Today. (S-87). 30 fr. Sale. VEC.

Reveals geographic, political, economic, and cultural position in the world today; important

duties; customs and everyday life; contrasts of the past and present; future aims.

Story of Modern Coffee. (S-90). 37 fr. Sale. VEC.

Depicts historical background, raising of coffee trees, processing of coffee cherries; production and consumption areas; role of coffee tasters.

Enrichment Filmstrips. Set of 6 in color. Sale. 45 fr. each. Enrichment Materials, Inc., 246 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.

Paul Revere and the Minute Men

Events leading up to the Revolutionary War.

The Winter at Valley Forge

Disastrous events which preceded victory.

Our Independence and the Constitution

Events leading up to the writing of two documents.

The Louisiana Purchase

Our purchase of a vast territory and its vital contributions to the growth of America.

The Lewis and Clark Expedition

Events which made it essential that a band of men head into a vast wilderness.

The California Gold Rush

The importance of the gold rush in American History is depicted.

Mayas of Central America and Mexico. 60 fr.

Color. Sale. Museum Extension Service, 10 E. 43 St., New York, N. Y.

Photographs of ruins combined with art frames recreate ancient scenes.

RECORDINGS

The Sky's the Limit, 78 r.p.m., 4 records, subtitled "Tall Tales of America," issued by Audio Education, Inc., New York 3, N. Y.

This album contains the clearest and best told collection of American folk tales that we have heard in many a day. For a story period, for use in American History and Literature, or to compare our own fictional heroes with those of other countries this album is valuable. It includes "Davy Crockett," "The White Steed," "Peter Rugg," and "Paul Bunyan." (H.S., Adult)

Three new titles make up a laudable effort in international understanding. The records are distributed by The International Communications Association, 317 Citizens Bldg., Cleveland 14, Ohio. The titles are *Holland Says Hello*, *Music of the Netherlands*, *Music of Norway*. The recordings have been made with the help of foreign students of friendly nations. These recordings deal with the life and culture of friendly nations. Each record is \$3.75, on 10", 33 1/3 r.p.m. (Jr.H., S.H.)

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Mental Health in Modern Education. By Nelson B. Henry, Ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955. Pp. xi, 397, i-lxxiv. The Fifty-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II.

It has been only during the last few decades that the mental-hygiene movement has emerged from the status of a remedial agent in a mental institution to that of a professional agency engaged in safeguarding the normal developmental processes of human growth from infancy to maturity. It is true that educational programs are not the only instrumentality through which the children are being guided toward the goal of effective living. But the school has a unique relationship to children during the early years and has the responsibility to discharge this task. In fact, as this vol-

ume stresses, "mental hygiene and modern education are so closely interrelated that it is as futile to plan a mental-health program without recognition of the role that the school is to play as it would be to conceive of a program of modern education without consideration of its effects upon the students' mental health" (p. 377).

Eclectic in its treatment, the opening chapter by Rivlin traces the history of mental health in modern education and sets forth the basic point of view that generally prevails throughout the volume, covering such widely different topics as the significance of a mental-health program in motivation and learning, the role of the home, the school, and the community in mental health, problems and practices related to mental health at different educational levels,

and personal and professional development of the teacher. The authors are recognized authorities in education: Paul A. Witty, Herbert A. Carroll, Paul T. Rankin, Harry N. Rivlin, and Ruth Strang.

Unfortunately, the editorial committee has not included a systematized bibliography here (although scholarly references are scattered throughout the publication). With it, this work would be the introductory text to the neglected but important field of education.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Conn.

American Heritage. Vol. vi, No. 5. American Heritage Publishing Co., New York. 112 pp. \$2.95. (\$12 per year)

It is easy to wax enthusiastic about *American Heritage*, the unique historical magazine. It is unique among historical magazines because it gives an emphasis to making history popular and because of its lavish use of illustrations, especially those in color. It does not sacrifice popularity to scholarship, however. One reads *American Heritage* with the assurance that he is reading history accurately.

The October 1955 issue carries 14 varied and lively articles, lavishly illustrated as usual in both color and black and white. The articles cover a wide range in area and in time. "Lord Liverpool and the United States," by George Dangerfield, examines the attempt by British statesmen in the post-Napoleonic War era to convert America into a commercial colony for British industry. "Ghost Rider to Daniel Boone," by John Walton, is an ironic sidelight on American history. "The Urge for Speed at Sea," by Allan Vincent, is a lavish color-picture album of the beautiful clipper ships of a century ago. "Quiet Earth, Big Sky," by Wallace Stegner, is a description of what the wide, windswept country along the Saskatchewan border looked like to a boy who lived there when the great wheat boom of 40 years ago was just beginning. "Uncle Tom, the Theater and Mrs. Stowe," by Richard Moody, is the "Uncle Tom" show of theatrical legend, illustrated by striking color illustrations. "In Defense of the Victorian House," by John Maass, gives a new glimpse of one of America's most famous architectural styles. "Martyr for a Free Press," by Alvin Harlow, is a thrilling chapter out of the

days of the Revolutionary War. "Death on the Dark River," by C. A. Larson, tells of one of the worst steamboat disasters in all history, on the Mississippi River. "The Primitive and the Park," by Lewis Miller, reveals a series of sketches in New York. "The Giants of American Conservatism," by Clinton Rossiter, analyzes what the Conservatives have done for America. "Three Years with Grant," by Ben Thomas, presents one of the most striking and original Civil War documents to be unearthed in recent years. "The Mills of Early America," by Eric Sloane, depicts a series of sketches and diagrams of windmills and watermills in America.

The book reviews by Bruce Catton, "Reading, Writing and History" are of special interest since they deal with various aspects of American History. "*American Heritage*" is a must for everyone interested in our wonderful America.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Public Schools
Mt. Vernon, New York

The Government and Administration of Wyoming. By Herman H. Trachsel and Ralph M. Wade. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1953. Pp. xvi, 381. \$4.95.

Indifference to the problems and functions of state and local government has been one of the chief characteristics of the American voting public in the last generation or two. The ramifications of the development of big economic organizations, big government and now big bombs have dominated not only the debates of our political leaders but also parlor and barber shop discussions of public affairs. Yet, despite the almost cavalier public attitude toward state and local governments, they continue to affect profoundly American society. In New York State, approximately twenty-seven cents of each tax dollar goes directly to the support of these "subordinate" governmental units; while in Wyoming, state expenditures run over one hundred and sixty dollars per capita. Education, road construction, fire and police protection, sanitation, recreation, licensing, water supply, supervision of elections, and the mediation and adjudication of disputes are but a few of the returns which the taxpayer receives from his investment in state and local government. The states also provide vital aid and

cooperation in the administration of innumerable federally sponsored programs of welfare, regulation and defense. Moreover, the efforts of the Eisenhower administration to return many of the responsibilities of the federal government to the states have further enhanced the importance of governance on the state level. Certainly, in terms of money spent and value received, the thrifty citizen can ill afford to be unconcerned with the operations of state and local governmental units. Not only do the four volumes herein considered make this point clear, but they also stand as splendid testaments to the advantages of the federal type of government for a country as large in area and as diversified in interests as is the United States.

These four volumes constitute the first to be published in the Crowell Company's *American Commonwealth* series. This ambitious undertaking, which will include scholarly studies of government in the forty-eight states and the four major territories, will serve to provide citizens, public officials, students, and teachers with reliable and detailed sources of information on state governance. These volumes follow a similar pattern of organization. A thumb-nail sketch of the political history, and the geographical and socio-economic features of the state introduces the reader to the subject matter material. Then consideration is given to the state constitution, the functioning of electoral and political organizations, and the legislative branch of government. With the exception of chapters on local governments and on the state's relations with other states and the federal government, the remainder of each volume is devoted to description of the executive and judicial agencies of the state government. In fact, the concern of these volumes is in large part with providing detailed accounts of the executive functions of the state governments.

One cannot help but be impressed with the prodigious amount of labor that has apparently gone into these lucidly written books. Not only have the published and manuscript sources relating to government in each of these states been thoroughly searched, but the authors have also secured the cooperation of various state officials in order to gain an adequate research base for their studies. In addition to describing

government in their respective states, the authors have frequently seen fit to indicate some of the weaknesses in the state body politic and proposed solutions thereto. These evaluations, without exception, have been maintained on a high responsible level.

By way of critical comment, it is most regrettable that these volumes overemphasize the administrative functions of state government at the expense of the extremely important and complex tasks of state governance served by political organizations, the legislature, the judiciary, and local governments. Only about a quarter of any one of these volumes is devoted to discussion of the functioning of these agencies. This is especially unfortunate in considering New York, where these areas of the body politic assume greater importance in governance than in most states. Despite the excellent and detailed analysis of executive administration on the state level included in these books, they cannot be represented as well-balanced descriptions and discussions of all of the many elements that make for government in a state. It is hoped that any future revisions of these volumes and that the forthcoming volumes in the *American Commonwealth* series will be based on a broader concept of the meaning of government. In any event, even with a minimal amount of consideration devoted to non-executive functions of state government, these books provide a better general coverage of government in Florida, Mississippi, New York, and Wyoming than has hitherto been available. Certainly, no social science teacher can afford to overlook the wealth of material on his own state government and on state governments in general which is to be found in this series.

DONALD R. MCCOY
State University Teachers College
Cortland, New York

The United States: Story of a Free People. By Samuel Steinberg. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1954. Pp. xix, 690. \$4.12.

This volume seems "custom made" for its purpose, namely to serve the high school adolescent. It stresses drama, emphasizing the story element and the narrative moves rapidly, high-lighted by a carefully selected set of pictures and maps, many in color, each designed

either to carry the main theme, freedom's story, or to stress important aspects of the drama. The details of wars are presented as a series of picture maps, thus making possible more attention to their setting and to those aspects of the struggles which are often overlooked in a textbook.

Nor does the author neglect the continental and world setting in which these developments take place. A case in point is the chapter, "The Wave of Nationalism hits the Western Hemisphere" with sections devoted to nationalism in Latin America and in Canada. The social and cultural aspects of our history are not overlooked in a narrative devoted primarily to the history of a people striving for a large measure of political and economic freedom.

Instead of formalizing the text by a unit organization, each chapter serves that purpose, approximately the same study material being suggested for the period from 1865 to the present as for the earlier phases of our history. The chapter headings are phrased in a challenging fashion, and the chapters themselves are provided with a teaching apparatus which is often unique and designed to appeal to the teenager. There is comparatively little emphasis on the administrations as such in the period following the Civil War. They are subordinated to the main lines of development. On the other hand the personalities of outstanding presidents and leaders are presented in considerable detail and in such a fashion as to arouse the interest of the adolescent.

It is apparent that this textbook is the product of a long and successful contact with the rank and file of teen-agers. As a piece of book-making it cannot fail to appeal to the clientele for whom it is designed.

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON

Cazenova Junior College

Cazenova, N. Y.

American Society: Urban and Rural Patterns.

By Edmund deS. Brunner and Wilbur C. Hallenbeck. New York: Harper & Brothers, c. 1955. Pp. xviii, 601. \$6.00.

Written by outstanding authorities, one on rural and one on urban society, and combining in a single volume study of the major aspects of these two types of American community, this book should have wide appeal. It is in line with growing evidence that "rural" and "urban" are

ceasing to be dichotomous terms, and that all our citizens are being caught up in the same comprehensive web of community and social relations.

The reviewer can see a number of appreciative audiences for the book. Its readability and pertinence to modern community experience will appeal to general readers. It should be an excellent supplement to many of the standard sociology course texts. It could be used as a text in certain general social science courses. It will certainly appeal to those who want a very practical text for a course in the community, or who wish to combine the old rural sociology and urban sociology courses into a new unified course.

The book is handsomely illustrated, well-printed, and contains for each chapter projects for both doing and discussing, and selected bibliographies.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College

Frederick, Maryland

The Parkman Reader. By Samuel Eliot Morison, editor. Boston, Massachusetts: Little, Brown and Co., 1955. Pp. 533. \$6.00.

It is a shame that more high school teachers of the social studies, or junior high teachers for that matter, do not know well the writing of Francis Parkman. Most history teachers, it is to be hoped, know the name. They recognize Parkman as one of the finest of our historians; they perhaps know that he dealt with the tremendous struggle between France and England for possession of North America. Yet in view of the fact that the Colonial period of American history tends to be neglected more and more, at all levels of instruction, and the probability that few teachers have ever read and reread Parkman to the point that they know and love what he has written, it would seem a very logical supposition that most of our public school students are never exposed to his writing. Another difficulty is the fact that Parkman's works are now, with the possible exception of *The Oregon Trail*, out of print, and have seldom been available except in massive, multi-volumed works.

Yet few who are acquainted with Parkman would question the statement that his writings are admirably suited to arouse the interest of adolescents: the descriptive prose, the admira-

ble characterization, the author's great understanding of the Indian and his habitat, all make this, when properly chosen and introduced, a wonderful teaching tool.

Professor Samuel Eliot Morison, recently retired at Harvard University and known for more than a quarter of a century as one of our great historians and more competent writers, has now made a one-volume selection from the writings of Parkman. Unlike so many modern "selections" by anthologists, Morison has not taken scattered beads and strung them together. Rather, he has selected entire sections or chapters, and arranged them to tell the entire story of the struggle for North America. In his thirty-six chapters he has presented perhaps fifteen per cent of the original work, and has given us an excellent cross section of the geographical, social, economic, political, military and biographical aspects of the focal struggle of our Colonial years. The brief introductions provide continuity; the notes evidence both the editor's scholarship and his insight.

In his brief but skillfully written introduction, Morison provides a provocative account of Parkman's truly heroic life. His early determination (he was only a sophomore at Harvard) to write "the history of the struggle between France and England in the New World," the physical difficulty of becoming acquainted with the Indian and the forest, his struggle with physical obstacles (blindness, arthritis) and personal tragedies, the tremendous determination to complete his chosen work—these add interest to the selections from his great history.

For the teacher, this is a most rewarding volume. Yet the greatest reward will come after the teacher has become familiar with it. Then, when individual chapters or descriptions of situations or people can be briefly introduced by the teacher and then assigned for student reading, when adolescents with a romantic interest in the rigor of colonial and frontier living—in battle and Indian life, can turn to the volume and read the powerful, descriptive prose, then will come the great reward. There has been no volume published for many a moon that offers such a fine opportunity to arouse student interest and break down student indifference as does this. If the reviewer were again teaching high school history he would want

several copies of this book both in the school library and in his own classroom.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

State University Teachers College

Cortland, New York

Anthropology. By J. E. Manchip White. New York: Philosophical Library Inc., 1955. Pp. viii, 9-191. \$2.75.

In five chapters, two on physical, and one each on cultural, social, and applied anthropology, White presents an excellent introduction to the subject as it deals with primitive societies. The book is simply written, yet packed full of information on the fields, methods, and results of anthropology. It will be appreciated by the general reader and by the teacher seeking a short, stimulating discussion of anthropology to fit into an already crowded social science program.

The sweep of anthropology is well conveyed, from the problem of reconstructing fossil types of men from skeletal fragments, tackled by the physical anthropologists, to that of alleviating the terror of the recent Mau Mau uprisings in Kenya, to which White believes applied anthropology could have contributed. The standard anthropological topics are included—man's family tree, race, invention, family organization, primitive institutions, disintegration of native cultures, etc.; the only one missed by the reviewer is the relation between culture and personality. The book remains only an introduction, however; full discussion of very complex matters is often sacrificed to brevity.

There are chapter bibliographies, and several pictures, maps, and diagrams. The lack of an index may reduce the book's usefulness somewhat.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College

Frederick, Maryland

Ancient Education. By William A. Smith. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. xii, 309. \$3.75.

A former Professor of Education at the University of California (Los Angeles) traces here the cultural and educational developments of the Mesopotamians, the Egyptians, the Indians, the Chinese, the Greeks, the Romans, and the Hebrews. His approach is sound; he treats education as a part of culture, within the total cultural setting, and uses the cultures them-

selves as the points of departure. (In other words, he avoids the methodology of the traditional history of education, focused largely upon the characterization of a succession of events, movements, and practices apart from the factors that condition them). The author avoids also the common pitfall of academic educators who have tended to make education a concept ranging all the way from the total socialization process operative in a society to formally organized institutional programs, and wisely limits himself to the consideration of the foundations of what ultimately came to be the organized institutional program; thus he has included here: accounts of the origin and nature of systems of writing, numeral notation, and standardized weights and measures; an identification of the situations and problems (economic, political, religious) that impelled recourse to education; and enumeration of the agencies that defined the aims of education and directed its course; a ferreting out of the varying aims and purposes as such; a characterization of curricular and methodological ventures; and some notion of the beginnings of deliberate speculation about education.

The stress of academic instruction on emphasizing subjects which have direct bearing upon contemporary events has made such subjects as Smith describes here nearly completely disreputable. Yet, educational anthropology is just as useful as has been recently pointed out regarding social anthropology, since both are the dynamics of social engineering, throwing into perspective man's tested ways and means of conquering himself and nature.

Although Smith's readable, and in many respects exciting presentation is faced with such standard works as Thomas Woody's *Life and Education in Early Societies* (Macmillan, 1949), his book belongs to every shelf of the educational historian, especially since Smith has the knack of being informative without being stuffy.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Conn.

American State Government and Administration. By Austin F. MacDonald. Fifth edition. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1955. Pp. xv, 672. \$4.00.

Professor Austin F. MacDonald's *American State Government and Administration* has gone

through five editions and twenty-seven printings since it was first published in 1934. It fully deserves its high reputation and its extensive use as a college text. It is clear, sound, and informative. It is not, however, characterized by profound insight nor by sparkling interpretations. It is perhaps likely to give a student the impression that state government in America is a dull and complicated subject. It is, in short, a book to be labored through rather than one which can be read with enjoyment.

The new fifth edition, according to the author himself, is "the most thorough revision" that has been made in this standard text. Two new chapters, on "Towns, Townships, Villages, and Special Districts" and on "Planning," have been added; new sections have been inserted in many of the chapters and minor alterations have been made throughout the book. As in previous editions the relations of the states with the federal government, on the one hand, and with local governments, on the other, are treated in separate chapters. Specific reference is made to at least 160 court decisions. The chapters on state administration and on the manifold activities of the states in such fields as health, welfare, education, conservation, and the regulation of business and of labor are particularly good.

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Language of Social Research. Edited by Paul F. Lazarsfeld and Morris Rosenberg. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, c. 1955. Pp. xiii, 590. \$6.75.

This is a highly technical book on the methodology of research in the social sciences. Assuming that previous publications adequately cover the collection of data (sampling, questionnaire construction, experimental techniques, etc.), the editors emphasize the analysis of material already "properly collected." The book consists mainly of readings reporting what the editors regard as examples of superior research. There are a general introduction of twelve pages and six brief statements, totaling twenty-two pages, to introduce the six sections of the book, in which the editors comment on certain aspects of each of the sixty-four studies. They make no further attempt at systematic presentation, and rather cavalierly state that the teacher "will

be forced to develop for himself the systematic discussions of which the concrete research examples are illustrative."

The case for methodology is made as follows: it trains social scientists to do better research, increases ability to cope with new and unfamiliar developments, contributes to interdisciplinary work, and provides principles for integrating and codifying our knowledge.

If this book contributes, as the editors hope, to the formal training of young social scientists, it will obviously have to be in advanced technical courses setting up a logical and explanatory framework not provided here.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

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Story of Our Country. By Ruth West. New York: Allyn and Bacon, Incorporated, 1954. Pp. xxx, 754. \$4.00.

This vivid new edition has been completely rewritten for the classroom and places emphasis throughout on achievement, great men and events that shaped the America of today.

It is a text that should appeal to junior high school students.

Our Changing Social Order. By Ruth Wood Gavian, A. A. Gray and Ernest R. Groves, New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1953. Pp. xxxiv, 616. \$3.60. Fourth Edition.

Few changes have been made in this new edition but the text still remains popular with teachers who wish to present problems from the sociological viewpoint.

Until Victory: Horace Mann and Mary Peabody. By Louis Hall Tharp. Boston, Massachusetts: Little, Brown and Company, 1953. Pp. xxlx, 367. \$5.00.

Teachers, regardless of subject field, will enjoy reading this fascinating story of Horace Mann and his career as a public servant.

The World's History. By Frederic C. Lane, Eric F. Geldman and Erling M. Hunt. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1954. Pp. xxxxv, 762. \$3.36. Revised Edition.

This revised second edition of a successful world history text is a major achievement in presentation of material skillful integration of reading test, study helps and illustrations for

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PAMPHLETS

Israel, the Emergence of a New Nation. By Oscar Kraines. Public Affairs Press, 2153 Florida Avenue, Washington 8, D. C. Price \$1.00.

Free and Inexpensive Materials on World Affairs. By Leonard S. Kenworthy. Public Affairs Press, 2153 Florida Avenue, Washington 8, D. C. Price \$1.25.

Trends in Production of Curriculum Guides. By Eleanor Merritt and Henry Harap. Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. Price .50 cents.

Personnel Resources in the Social Sciences and Humanities. Bulletin Number 1169, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington 25, D. C. Price .70 cents.

Socioculture and Psychological Processes in Memomini Acculturation. By George D. Spindler. University of California Press, Berkeley, California. Price \$3.50.

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"Change in Soviet Regime Examined," *American Observer*, Volume 24, Number 22. February 21, 1955.

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"The Defense of Asia," by United States Under Secretary of State Robert Murphy. *The Department of State Bulletin*, November 29, 1954.

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Concise Dictionary of Ancient History. Edited by P. G. Woodcock. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. 465. \$6.00.

History of the Second World War. Studies in the Social Services. By S. M. Ferguson and H. Fitz Gerald. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1955. Pp. ix. \$5.25.

The Urban South. Edited by Rupert B. Vance and Nicholas J. Demerath. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1955. Pp. 306. \$5.00.

Breastplate and Buckskin. By George E. Tait. Peoria, Illinois: Charles A. Bennett and Company, 1955. Pp. xxxv, 232. \$2.50.

The Art of Primitive Peoples. By J. T. Hooper and C. A. Burland. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. ix, 168. \$7.50.

An Intellectual Primer. By Jay C. Knodel. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. xx, 87. \$2.50.

The Age of Belief. By Anne Fremantle. New York: The New American Library, 1955. Pp. xii, 218. \$5.0.

The Field Study of Place. A Practical Guide. By A. J. Wraight. Washington, D. C.: The University Press of Washington, D. C., 1955. Pp. vii, 77. \$2.25.

Western Europe in the Middle Ages. By Joseph R. Strayer. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955. Pp. v, 245. \$2.50.

Perceptualistic Theory of Knowledge. By Peter Fireman. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. v, 50. \$2.75.

Occupations and Careers. By Walter James Greenleaf. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955. Pp. xxxiv, 605. \$4.20.

Economics. D. N. Donaldson. Fort Collins, Colorado: Colorado Agriculture College Press, 1954. Pp. xxvii, 205. \$3.00.

Readings in Anthropology. By E. Adamson Hoebel, Jesse D. Jennings and Elmer R. Smith. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955. Pp. 417. \$5.00.

The American Legion and American Foreign Policy. By Roscoe Baker. New York: Bookman Associates, 1955. Pp. ix, 329. \$4.75.

American State Government and Administration. By Austin F. MacDonald. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1955. Pp. xxxi, 651. \$6.00. Fifth Edition.

State and Local Governments in the United States. By Austin F. MacDonald. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1955. Pp. xxx, 667. \$6.00.

Survey of American History. By Leland D. Baldwin. New York: American Book Company, 1955. Pp. xxiv, 786. \$6.00.

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The Nihilism of John Dewey. By Paul K. Crosser. New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. vii, 238. \$3.75.

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International Migrations: The Immigrant in the Modern World. By Donald R. Taft and Richard Robbins. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1955. Pp. xxiii, 670. \$7.00.

American Society: Urban and Rural Patterns. By Edmund deS. Brunner and Wilbur C. Hallenbeck. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955. Pp. xxvi, 601. \$7.00.

The Story of American Democracy. By Mabel B. Casner and Ralph H. Gabriel. New York: The Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952. Pp. xxxv, 679. \$3.00.

Revised and brought up to date.

Let Freedom Ring. The Struggle for a peaceful world. Good Reading Rack Service. 76 9th Avenue, New York 11, N. Y. Price \$10.

Heritage. 9 minutes. Sound. Color. Sale. McGraw Hill Book Co., Text-film Dept., 330 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y.

Produced by Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, in cooperation with Catholic Youth Movement and United Christian Youth Movement, it defines the natural rights of man and shows how these rights may be maintained.

The Government and Administration of Florida. By Wilson K. Doyle, Angus M. Laird and S. Sherman Weiss. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1954. Pp. xviii, 444. \$4.95

The Government and Administration of Mississippi. By Robert B. Highsaw and Charles N. Fortenberry. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1954. Pp. xvi, 414. \$4.95.

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